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White House Conference Followup

A Program for Better Parenting

Security for the Retarded

Services to Children in Their Homes

AN INTERDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL FOR THE PROFESSIONS SERVING CHILDREN

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A NEW SENSATION accompanies the learning process for this young finger painter enrolled in a parent-cooperative nursery. Such cooperatives may not only bring the benefits of a nursery school to families with modest incomes, but, for the parents—who take turns helping to teach—may enhance the quality of parenting. Parent-cooperative nurseries are a part of Baltimore's parent education program, described on page 9.

◀ *the authors*

A social worker who has directed public relations programs for voluntary and public social agencies in Cincinnati, New York, and Pennsylvania, Frances Schmidt (left) was a public relations consultant to the Children's Bureau's special program in followup of the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth. Mildred I. French (right) was involved in Indiana's preparation for the Conference as director of the Governor's Youth Council.

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State committees on children and youth provide . . .

WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE FOLLOWUP WITHIN THE STATES

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WHAT HAS HAPPENED in the States since the Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, in March 1960, when more than 7,500 people spent 5 days giving serious thought to ways in which young people might be helped to "reach their full potential for a creative life in freedom and dignity?" [1]

What have the State committees for the White House Conference, which worked so devotedly prior to the Conference, been doing to carry out the hundreds of Conference recommendations? [2]

Now nearly 2 years later, there are indications that the ground swell of community action which this sixth decennial White House Conference on children generated is being channeled effectively in the interest of young people in thousands of communities from coast to coast. In many places the Conference recommendations [2] and the pre-Conference reports prepared by the States [3] have been merged into working documents which are being used daily.

The pace of followup has, of course, varied from State to State, as well as from community to community, depending not only on citizen interest, but also on the backing the leaders of such interest have been able to achieve from governors and legislators.

Fifty-five United States jurisdictions participated in the Conference—the fifty States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, Guam, and American Samoa. As of November 1, 1961, a total of 53 States and other jurisdictions had active State committees (or commissions) on children and youth, which serve as initiators, coordinators, and catalysts of efforts to improve the opportunities of children and youth within the States. Of these committees, 35 had paid professional staff while the others were functioning with voluntary leadership. Several committees, however, have the use of staff of State agencies. Many of these committees existed before the 1960 White House Conference—some even before the 1950 Conference—but all have received an energizing "shot in the arm" from the 1960 White House Conference.

The committees vary widely in organization, financing, and program. Some were created by legislative action; some were appointed by State governors, a few are voluntary and independent; and three are part of State welfare associations. Some are financed by legislative appropriation, some from State contingency funds, others by contributions from existing welfare associations and agencies, a few by voluntary contributions. Some committees have machinery for reaching down into localities through affiliated committees, as in California, where 20 county commissions on children and youth have

been created at the request of the Governor. Other State committees work with the localities through established State and regional health and welfare organizations.

In an article in the March–April 1960 issue of CHILDREN, summarizing the pre-Conference State reports, Betty Barton and Katharine D. Pringle stated:

> **They do not come up with startlingly new knowledge or recommendations—in most instances what they recommend has been heard before from professional and technical groups dealing with health problems, adoptions, court programs for juveniles, dependency, and neglect, and from previous White House conferences. They reflect, however, review of the total environment or any particular group of children.[4]**

As might be expected, post-White House Conference activity has been characterized by a narrowing of the focus to a concentration on those comparatively few areas which to the States and communities involved seem to present the greatest need and at the same time the greatest possibility of solution within a reasonable time. However, in many instances these choices have been made without losing sight of the total picture and with full awareness of the need to progress, as time permits, from the present defined activities to broader concerns. Thus, many of the programs which have developed as a result of the Conference reflect the determination of groups of people to translate words into immediate action. For example:

• The Wilson County Youth Commission in Lebanon, Tenn., has tackled the problem of providing vocational training for school dropouts by hiring the skilled teachers necessary to help 35 high school boys learn the construction trades by building a house. When completed, the house will be sold at auction and the proceeds will be used to finance similar projects in the future.

• Beaver County, in Pennsylvania, has already achieved most of the recommendations included in its pre-Conference report: the appointment of a citizens' advisory committee to the juvenile court; the appointment of a probation staff and juvenile police officers, and the establishment of an 8-week training program for them; the employment of a qualified executive for the local health and welfare council; and the establishment of a mental health youth corps to recruit young people into the mental health and social work careers.

• The Maine Committee for Children and Youth, after making a study of personnel in State agencies dealing with children, is working to realize the following recommendations: employment of a qualified full-time person within the department of personnel with authority and funds to carry out a coordinated recruitment program; expansion of summer job training opportunities to introduce more college students to the possibility of careers in services for children; development of undergraduate social welfare programs with field placement opportunities; exploration of the possibility of developing professional education within the State; additional funds and personnel for State staff development programs.

• In Puerto Rico the White House Conference Committee of Adjuntos, a small mountain town, has secured free dental service for school children. It has also arranged for intelligence tests and ophthalmological examinations for selected children. With the help of the police and the local athletic league, the committee has succeeded in having sidewalks built in one of the poorest sections of town.

• In Floydada, Tex., a rancher's wife who was a delegate to the Conference organized home demonstration classes for young Latin-American mothers in sewing, home nursing, food preservation, money management, home furnishing, and crafts. Classes are held in a church; materials are donated by local merchants; and the teachers are ranch women who were themselves taught in home demonstration clubs.

Throughout the States thousands of talks have been given by Conference delegates to tell PTA's, civic and service clubs, church groups, and others the story of the White House Conference and what it can mean in their communities if citizens get behind local efforts to achieve their State's recommendations. In addition, a number of State follow-up committees are sponsoring TV and radio programs and otherwise disseminating information focused on the needs of children and youth, as well as on the services available for them.

Many State committees on children and youth spent the first post-Conference years on efforts to secure the State legislation needed for realizing their chosen objectives. In some States the committees presented formal legislative programs to their legislatures, while in others they served as clearinghouses for information on pending legislation affecting children. Some lobbied directly while others stimulated citizen support of their programs by cooperating with established social action groups.

Although no score sheet is available on the actual number of bills passed or defeated which had the backing of State committees on children and youth, evidence indicates that considerable success has been achieved.

However, some committees have expressed confidence that even where success was not achieved, the process of community education has been effective enough to bring the bills further along in the legislation process.

Methods of Followup

After the Washington meeting, many States convened Little White House Conferences in which delegates and other interested young people and adults selected priorities from a long list of Conference recommendations. Subcommittees were appointed, assignments made, and plans for action developed on local, county, or State levels as seemed most appropriate.

For example, in Oregon each county delegation to a statewide followup conference was asked to submit two recommendations, one relating to specific action it would like to see taken by the 1961 legislature and the other focused on "areas in which problems have been identified but about which we do not have sufficient information to document accurately the need for corrective measures." Out of a 3-day planning meeting came specific recommendations for legislative action which would strengthen local health departments and child guidance centers, establish a citizen recreational advisory board, establish and develop area projects for family counseling, establish a new curriculum with emphasis on political and social philosophies in public schools, and set up a legislative interim study of youth employment. A followup report after the end of the 1961 legislative session tallies the results:

> **We lost our measure for a Children's Code. . . . The measure to give legal status to local health departments squeaked through. . . . We secured a measure that gives State assistance to local areas for establishment of diagnostic and treatment centers for mentally and emotionally handicapped children. . . . We secured the budget for putting the graduate school of social work on the road. . . . There is to be an interim committee to study divorce and family breakdown and we hope that this committee includes a look at "family courts". . . . We failed to get our interim committee to study youth employment but we did do a fair educational job on this problem.**

As a result, the Oregon committee rated its record as 50–50, with a big plus on the educational and public understanding side.

Other followup achievements in Oregon include a program of family life education, focused on parents of preschool children, now underway in one community; and a study by the Portland Community Council to determine needs in day care. In this study, interviews are being carried out with working mothers in two areas of the city and intake records of institutions caring for preschool children are being examined to determine whether the parents of the children would have placed their children in day-care facilities had they been available.

In New Jersey, four regional conferences were held on specific aspects of community planning for children and youth, and a 2-day symposium was held on residential facilities for children.

The New Jersey Committee on Children and Youth has appointed six task forces with the following concerns: family life education; psychiatric services for children and youth; community health services; educational opportunities for youth; cultural enrichment of community life; protective, correctional, and rehabilitative services to youth. Each task force is charged with responsibility for becoming knowledgeable about the background and current activities, trends, and needs in its province; developing specific programs related to its subject matter; following through on necessary action; and reporting in a statewide conference in 1965.

In Hawaii, 1,100 delegates from 371 agencies and organizations participated in a followup conference sponsored by the Hawaii Commission on Children and Youth. The Commission plans continuing evaluation of progress toward reaching the goals set at this conference and advisory assistance to agencies involved in carrying them out. These goals call for specific attention to: children and youth in low-income housing projects, detention facilities, services and facilities for the treatment and care of emotionally disturbed children, playground needs, protective and legal services to children, illegitimacy,

Key figures at a rally of the Oklahoma Youth Advisory Board, were (left to right) the Board president, the State's Lieutenant-Governor, a speaker, and a Board member.

illegal sale of liquor to minors, family life and the role of the family in citizenship training. County committees on children and youth have also held conferences and are working toward these objectives.

Youth Participation

Although youth participation in followup activity was one of the strongest emphases of the White House Conference, only 12 States actually specify that young people must be included in their followup organizational structures. However, 43 State committees report having young people as active participants in some phase of their programs. How far this is from token participation varies with the State.

However, while youth councils—councils composed entirely of young people—existed in a few States prior to the 1960 White House Conference,[5] others have been formed since the Conference. For instance, in St. Croix and St. Thomas, V. I., shortly after the White House Conference, the Governor proclaimed a youth week and named committees of young people to be responsible for sports, entertainment, and publicity.

Most of the youth councils have held local, regional, or statewide meetings with programs designed primarily by and for young people, adults participating only as consultants. For example:

• In the spring of 1961, the Rhode Island youth council, in cooperation with the Rhode Island Council of Community Services, held a 2-day conference attended by over 200 young people who took part in seminars on intergroup relations, teenage marriage and divorce, youth's values, juvenile delinquency, and conformity among young people. The program committee responsible for planning the conference asked the young people to frame a question representing their deepest concern, and often received the query, "Where are we going?" All of the discussions were carried on in that perspective.

• The Oklahoma Youth Advisory Board held a rally last fall, under the sponsorship of the Governor's Committee on Children and Youth, which drew an attendance of about 800 young people from high schools around the State. With the theme of the conference, "Challenges That Face Today's Youth," the conferees focused on moral and spiritual values; "rededicated Americanism;" acceptance of responsibility in home, family, and community; and physical fitness.

• In Pennsylvania, students of 18 high schools in a tri-county area surrounding the State capital have held discussion groups on four topics: youth evaluates its education; youth in its family relationships; the role of religion in youth development; and youth and standards of conduct. The results of these discussions were brought together by 238 students elected to attend an all-day Capital Area Forum.

• California's youth council has spent 6 months planning a conference in which young people from all parts of the State will concern themselves with methods for developing community service projects.

• The Minnesota Governor's Advisory Council on Children and Youth has surveyed youth in the State through high school student councils, and determined the subject content for regional conferences to be held in 1962. The subjects to be discussed will focus on the general areas of values and standards as they relate to youth. In 1961 the council conducted a Conference on Traffic Safety and Driver Education.

• In Kansas, seven little White House Conferences were held for high school youth in December 1960, under the direction of the Maternal and Child Health Division of the Kansas State Board of Health, on the campuses of Kansas universities and colleges. More than 800 young people and 160 adults took part in discussions on careers in public health and social work, preparation for marriage and parenthood, health problems, nutrition, emotional problems, and driver education.

Youth Employment

The related problems of stimulating job opportunities for youth and of discouraging young people from leaving high school or vocational school before they have finished are occupying the attention of State committees on children and youth and youth councils from coast to coast.

The National Committee for Children and Youth, the national coordinating body created for Conference followup purposes,[6] held a Conference on Unemployed Out-of-School Youth in Urban Areas in Washington in May 1961, where representatives of government, industry, organized labor, the schools, and the various professions serving children and youth met to discuss these problems. [See "Unemployed Youth," CHILDREN, July–August 1961, page 151.] State and local meetings with a similar focus have also been held. For example, the Kansas Council on Children and Youth at its June 1961 meeting formulated an action program for better meeting the educational and employment problems of youth. And in Portland, Oreg., the Metropolitan

Youth Commission held a workshop in March 1961 on the subject, "Dropouts—A Dilemma."

Many of the studies underway in various parts of the country on the causes of school-leaving are under the joint auspices of the State committee on children and youth and the State or local board of education. For example, in Indiana the Governor's Youth Council is cosponsoring a study with the Secondary Principals' Association involving a questionnaire to teachers regarding potential dropouts from school and a followup interview with the young people who do leave.

In several States and localities, the committees on children and youth are cooperating with the State employment services in programs of counseling, testing, and placement services for school dropouts.

In Santa Cruz, Calif., for example, a committee on youth employment has been formed to work with the State employment service in getting satisfactory work experience for teenagers. At the committee's request, the local Business and Professional Women's Club undertook a study focused on the elements in job experiences which make for satisfactory or unsatisfactory employment, which resulted in recommendations for changes in vocational training, counseling, and placement services.

Altogether 34 State committees are working to achieve improvements in the educational, vocational training and counseling, and job placement opportunities for young people.

In Michigan, the State Youth Commission has presented to the Governor a work and service program based on the proposals prepared by the Federal Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth for providing every young person between 16 and 21 with an opportunity for creative work for the benefit of the Nation.

Other Concerns

The White House Conference made strong recommendations on the subject of human rights, and many State committees and youth councils explicitly express a concern for *all* children in their statements of purpose. No reports thus far have been received of any of the State committees or youth councils devising action programs specifically focused on the elimination of racial or religious discrimination. However, the criteria of equality of opportunity is implicit in many of the projects these committees have developed.

Nineteen State committees have reported involvement with legislation in behalf of migrants. In Oklahoma the committee backed legislation directing the State Legislative Council to study the problems of migratory labor, and in seven other States committees on children and youth are supporting similar legislation affecting migratory families. In California, New York, and North Dakota, the committees supported bills establishing a minimum wage for agricultural employees. In Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and Oregon, State White House Conference followup committees have been interested in the passage of bills providing for payment of State funds to local school districts for schools and transportation for migrant children.

Juvenile delinquency, a major pre-Conference concern in many of the States,[3] continues to occupy the attention of many State followup committees. The Wyoming Youth Council, for example, has sponsored a medical legal seminar on juveniles, attended by 30 judges, doctors, lawyers, probation officers, and social workers. Similarly, the Louisiana Youth Commission has stimulated institutes for police officers and juvenile court judges and has successfully worked toward reorganization of the juvenile court.

Many State committees are encouraging the development of special projects on family life education and family counseling. In Georgia, for example, family life education programs are being promoted by the State committee's section on religion; in Illinois the Commission on Children brought together, for a workshop, representatives of several counties interested in establishing family service associations.

Many of the active followup committees are working for improved services to the handicapped. In

MULTIPLE EFFORTS

Who can measure the distance an idea travels or the progeny it produces? And who can trace the ancestry of an idea whose progeny have fashioned a tangible result? Thus it is with the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth, which gave impetus to the achievement of goals, many of which had long been glimpsed by persons concerned with the well-being of the young. So many people and organizations have striven toward these goals through various affiliations that the results of their Conference participation cannot be separated out from the results of other efforts, pinned down, and measured. Therefore, the accompanying article does not pretend to be an exhaustive report of even the one phase of post-Conference activity it discusses. It is offered to provide a glimpse of the kinds of efforts that have been made by State and local committees on children and youth in pursuit of Conference objectives. Federal agencies and national organizations are equally active in their followup activities.

Mississippi, for example, the Children's Code Commission was a cosponsor with the Nemours Foundation of a 2-day conference on handicapped children held in Jackson in February 1961. The conference resulted in the formation of an association for handicapped children which is to issue an interpretative bulletin on the needs of handicapped children and a directory of services.

Coordination and Communication

Pre-Conference planning had stimulated local communities to take a hard look at themselves to determine where they measured up and where they fell short in providing services and opportunities for their children and youth. In this they were aided by their State committees which in turn could draw on the consultation services of the White House Conference staff.

When the official White House Conference organization was terminated in the fall of 1960 so that its consultant service was no longer available, the newly established National Committee for Children and Youth and the Children's Bureau, through a temporary special unit for White House Conference followup staffed by specialists in community organization, joined their efforts to make consultation services available to the States which sought help in getting their followup programs underway. Following a national workshop on followup procedures called by the Children's Bureau in October 1960, the Bureau sponsored a series of four regional workshops—in Boston, Chicago, Oklahoma City, and San Francisco—in which the members of State committees came together with representatives of national and Federal agencies from within their regions to exchange experiences and consider ways of strengthening the State committees and advance programs for children and youth.

With the expiration on June 30, 1961, of the funds appropriated by Congress to the Children's Bureau for this purpose, the Bureau's special unit was closed. However, the Bureau continues to provide consultation to the State committees through the services of a special consultant on community organization, and to cooperate with the National Committee for Children and Youth.

While White House Conference followup is not progressing with equal vigor in all the States, clearly the Conference's recommendations have stimulated renewed efforts in the interests of children and young people in villages, townships, cities, counties, and States from coast to coast. This has meant not only increased communication between lay and professional people but also between lay people and other lay people, between professional people and other professional people, and in all possible combinations.

Eyes have been raised from personal or specialized concerns to broad community needs affecting children. For example, the Illinois Chapter of the American Academy of Pediatrics has authorized its committee on implementation of the recommendations of the 1960 White House Conference to poll the entire membership of the Chapter to inquire what civic activities each pediatrician has entered into, and what ones he would be interested to participate in. In this way, the Chapter hopes to make available a pool of interested pediatricians who would be of assistance to local health and welfare agencies for technical advice, service on advisory boards, or other purposes.

Regional representatives of national agencies, public and voluntary, have met together in many instances for the first time, are learning from each other what contribution each is prepared to make to State programs, and are discussing ways of meshing services so that youth may be better served. Their State and local counterparts are making similar discoveries of mutual interest and are considering together how they can fit into the patterns of local needs and plans, as outlined by State committees. Extension services of State universities have proved to be of invaluable help to several State committees.

If such channels of communication can be kept open, it stands to reason not only that the programs now being so energetically undertaken in the States have a better chance of success, but that the program for the 1970 White House Conference will be a realistic part of a continuing process.

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[1] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau: Children and youth in a changing world; reporting on the Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth. *Children*, May–June 1960.

[2] Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth: Recommendations; composite report of forum findings. National Committee on Children and Youth, Washington, 1960.

[3] Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth: The States report on children and youth. Washington, 1960.

[4] Barton, Betty; Pringle, Katharine D.: Today's children and youth. I. As viewed from the States. *Children*, March–April 1960.

[5] Wright, Sara-Alyce P.: Youth participation in community affairs. *Children*, July–August 1959.

[6] Greenwood, Edward D.: Converting words into action. *Children*, May–June 1960.

Baltimore offers a variety of channels for improving the quality of parenthood through . . .

A COMMUNITY-WIDE PROGRAM OF PARENT EDUCATION

KATHARINE WHITESIDE TAYLOR
Supervisor of Parent Education, Baltimore Public Schools

TWENTY-SEVEN years ago the Baltimore City school system through its Adult Education Division began offering a few courses to help parents in their parenting. Today, Baltimore's program of parent education, greatly expanded, reaches parents in every part of the city. It is carried out by 30 part-time leaders and a full-time supervisor through a variety of methods:

1. Parent education groups for parents of children of various age levels and of children with special problems. These are offered in every area of the city, from the prosperous to the poor. In 1961 there were more than 100 such classes attended by some 2,000 parents.

2. Thirteen parent-cooperative preschools, which have the dual purpose of providing stimulating experiences for preschool children and help to parents in understanding their children's behavior.

3. Weekly television programs which reach an estimated audience of some 40,000.

4. One-day institutes. In 1961 four such institutes reached a total of 500 people.

The total program has two major objectives: (1) to help parents gain an understanding of children's behavior and skill in guiding their children to optimum development; (2) to help them gain the self-confidence needed for using their skills and learning effectively.

In all phases of the program, the principles of human growth and development which underlie children's behavior are emphasized.

The parent education groups fall into two major categories: (1) discussion groups (comprising about three-fourths of all the classes); and (2) preschool observation groups. Usually about 60 of the discussion groups are for parents whose children are in elementary school, and 15 are for parents with children in high school or having special concerns or problems. The discussion groups have 15 to 20 members and the observation groups 10 to 15 members who bring along their own preschool children to form the child groups observed.

Discussion Groups

While the typical discussion group has 30 weekly sessions, some groups decide to meet less frequently. Many parents have attended the same group for several years, some for as many as 5 consecutive years, during which they have displayed marked changes in attitude.

In these groups the discussions grow out of the interests and problems of those enrolled. Even so, at the elementary level during the course of a year they almost invariably include discipline, sibling rivalry, jealousy, anger and fear (in both children and parents), sex education, the child's use of money, family recreation, chores, intrafamily relationships, and parents' need for participation in nonparenting activities. Parents of teenagers nearly always discuss revolt against family standards, allowances, the teenager's need for privacy and freedom, boy-girl relations, and the choice of a vocation. Discussions

With the help of a teacher, these children learn to make paint in one of the parent-cooperative "preschools" in Baltimore, where participating mothers take the preservice training the city requires, then serve as assistant teachers.

are stimulated and enriched by films, skits, role playing, book reports, observation of school programs, and trips.

In the hands of a skillful teacher, such groups help in more ways than learning. There is relaxation as common problems are shared, and as the participants find they may express their feelings freely in a permissive, accepting atmosphere. Equally important, the support from an understanding group seems to help the mothers develop a sense of the significance of the tasks of parenthood, often tragically lacking in young mothers today, yet basic to the maintenance of mental health. The practice of giving each class member an office or committee responsibility, carried out in many of these classes, also helps to increase this sense of significance.

While most of the classes are composed of mothers, a number are composed of both parents, and some of fathers only. The "fathers only" classes were formed for two reasons. First, it is often difficult for both parents to leave at night, since this requires getting a "sitter." Second, some fathers have expressed the feeling that their wives had gotten too far ahead of them in child study and that they therefore needed a class of their own to help them "catch up." Several of these "fathers only" classes have been followed by the formation of a class for both parents.

There have also been groups for grandparents, as well as special groups in preparation for marriage and marriage adjustment aimed at promoting growth-inducing emotional climates both in beginning families and in those farther along.

The program's parent education leaders have also helped parents prepare their children for kindergarten by holding meetings in a number of schools for parents whose children were scheduled to enter kindergarten the following fall, along with the usual arrangements for each mother and child to observe in the kindergarten the child would attend, and to meet the teacher.

Among the offerings for parents with special problems are groups for parents who have no spouse in the home to help in the child-rearing task, groups for parents of physically or mentally handicapped children, and for parents of delinquents.

The groups for "parents without partners" meet with leaders who not only are formally qualified to be parent educators, but also have themselves faced the task of rearing a child alone, thus achieving a deep understanding of the practical and emotional problems of lone parenthood. The parents in these groups have achieved so much support from each other that they have at times continued their group meetings through the summer months when no instructor can be provided.

While the groups for parents of the handicapped have focused on the basic needs of all children, they have also dealt with the special difficulties of the children of each group—blindness, deafness, cerebral palsy, and mental retardation, as well as with the parents' and others' feelings and attitudes toward these children and their handicaps.

The groups for parents of delinquents have been organized at the request of the juvenile court for parents whose children are about to be released from the training schools for juvenile offenders. The focus here is on helping the parents find constructive ways of building healthy relationships with these young people and of providing them with proper guidance. Since attendance at these sessions is optional, not more than a quarter of those parents eligible for them participate. However, the probation officers reports have shown improvement in the attitudes of those who have attended.

Preschool Observation Classes

Parents' preschool observation classes, following plans originating in West Coast cities, were introduced into the Baltimore program 9 years ago, with the inauguration of one such class. There are now

25 of these classes. Their purpose is to reach both mothers and children in the early years of the child's personality formation, when the pace of development is most rapid but when the child is not yet eligible for the school's guidance program. While all observation classes meet weekly for 2½ hours a morning for 30 weeks, new classes may form at any time there is a demand, even during the last 4 weeks of the school year.

Each participating mother in the observation classes brings her preschool child or children (aged 2 to 5) one morning a week to a play group run in connection with them. The parents at first observe the children and later participate in their supervision under a teacher trained in parent education as well as in the education of preschool children. The teacher helps the parents' record their observations. During one hour of the morning the mothers gather in a room adjoining the nursery school to discuss their observations and the principles studied, while the nursery school teacher's assistant supervises the children.

Thus the parents have what may be called "practice teaching" in parenthood, an experience much needed by some parents, but seldom provided. These experiences in seeing and doing are more likely to carry the theories of child care learned in the classes over into the parents' daily child-care practices than those just read or heard about.

After 10 sessions of observation and discussion, mothers are given opportunity to take turns assisting the nursery school teacher in supervising the children. This helps both parents and teachers to evaluate the degree of parent learning.

Each mother keeps a record of her observations of her own child's behavior not only in the group, but also at home. The teacher reads these records each week, writes comments on them, and returns them to the mother. These annotated records, along with the teacher's evaluation of the child's development, serve as a basis of individual parent-teacher conferences regarding both the child's and the mother's progress.

It has been held that no mother can be "objective" about her own child's behavior. While it is true that each mother's feeling about her own child is different than toward other children, and should remain so, the experience of relatively objective recording develops a desirable combination of the objective and subjective, replacing the judgmental with the causal approach to child behavior.

At the end of each year parents make summaries, based on their records, of the progress and major needs of their children and of themselves as parents. Gratifying results are found both among those mothers with a high level of education and those with little educational background. Following is one mother's summary of what happened:

We wrote down everything the children said and did, then we were given guidance in analyzing and interpreting this "raw" material. Doing that work was an experience I shall never forget. By studying and interpreting the play and words of that small 3-year-old, a new world was revealed to me—the dynamic interworkings of human beings. By studying my child I learned more of myself and my husband and our relationship.

Since most schools are overcrowded and observation groups need nursery facilities for children as well as space for the parents' discussion, housing them has presented a complicated problem. They are held in churches, recreation centers, housing projects, and in cooperative preschool centers when the centers are not in session. This last provision has turned into a happy reciprocal arrangement since observation groups help provide the preliminary training required of the parents who plan to participate in cooperative nurseries.

Cooperative Preschool Centers

Nine years ago, at the completion of a 15-week course on guiding the growth of preschool children, an enterprising group of young mothers formed the Mt. Washington Cooperative Nursery Center, Baltimore's first parent cooperative. Since that time, 12 other parent-cooperative preschools have been opened including one for preschool-age retarded children. While these parent cooperatives are organized and supported entirely by the parents themselves, they are sponsored by the Adult Education Division of the Baltimore Public Schools. The division provides the participating parents with both preliminary training and continuing educational consultation.

A large measure of the success of Baltimore's parent cooperatives is probably attributable to the requirement that each mother attend 12 to 15 training sessions before entering a cooperative, and monthly sessions thereafter. The preservice training is necessary since in these centers the parents serve as assistant teachers under the direction of a trained nursery school teacher. It may be obtained through a course in guiding children's growth offered by the Adult Education Division, through an observation class, or through a summer workshop provided by the Baltimore Council of Parent Cooperatives and

paid for by the parents themselves. In these courses the parents learn methods of child care based on child development principles as well as nursery school procedures. They also learn how to cooperate in a group.

Because the mothers are required to assist in the nursery one day a week, the parent cooperatives do not help solve the problems of day care for the children of working mothers, except in cases where the mother can arrange time off for this purpose. However, they do bring the values of nursery education within the reach of families with modest incomes, since the average cost of participation is around $15 a month. Planned and operated by the parents who use them, they exemplify one of the basic processes of democracy—citizen initiative to meet citizen needs.

In these preschool groups the children not only receive the kind of stimulation of the development of social skills, self-reliance, and creativity all good nursery schools provide, but also—because the presence of their own and their friends' mothers makes for a familiar atmosphere—find a good bridge between the security and informality of home and the world of outsiders soon to be presented by school life.

Equally important for the children is what the parents are apt to gain from this experience. The preliminary and inservice training, the assistance in the group care of children, and the group processes involved in helping to plan the nursery program are all designed to increase the mother's sense of competence in her most important task, the care of her own children. Moreover, the fact that the participating mothers have four mornings free from child care to devote to other pursuits allows them to renew former interests or develop new ones.

Parent cooperatives are even more likely than the traditional parent education discussion groups to help the young mothers overcome a sense of isolation and inadequacy. The participants tend to become a kind of family of families, a result which in a sense may provide a substitute for some of the emotional and practical support available in other times from grandparents and other relatives in large households. The cooperatives may also contribute to the mother's sense of importance. Working for a *group* of children instead of just for one's own in many instances deepens the sense of contributing significantly to society. Wrote one mother:

Until I found this cooperative I felt my life was going down the drain with the dishwater every morning, and my tears flowed down with it. Coming here has virtually saved my life. I feel like a functioning person again. I really enjoy my children now and my husband says I'm more companionable.

The spirit of zestful giving and common purpose usual in parent cooperatives creates a warm emotional climate evident to observers.

Television Programs

For over 10 years the Baltimore school system in cooperation with local television stations has offered parents a weekly television program in child care. For the first 5 years this consisted of a series of skits, each presenting a typical problem of parent-child interaction, enacted by children and parents chosen through the schools and a discussion of the problem by a panel of teachers, parents, and child development specialists. In more recent years the programs consisted of a parent's presentation of a real problem which was then discussed by the school system's parent education supervisor and other specialists. Last year the focus of the programs was changed to concentrate on the problems and interests of parents of infants.

The reason behind this change was the problem of forming class discussion groups for these parents because of their difficulty in getting away from home. Under the present plan, the program presents typical problems of young parents with new babies, which are discussed by a panel composed of the parent education supervisor, one or two parents, and a child development specialist. The response in mail and phone calls indicates that some 40,000 families are reached by each show. Among many others, the topics presented have included: What To Do When Baby Cries; The Thumb Sucker; Feeding the Infant; Traveling With Baby; The Baby Sitter; Father's Share; Toilet Training; Is My Baby Normal; When the Second Baby Comes; The First Trip to the Hospital; When Your Child Will Not Obey; When Your Child Gets Angry; When You Get Angry; When Should Professional Help Be Sought?

Advisory Committees

For some years parent education councils were formed in five areas of the city. Later these were amalgamated into one citywide Parent Education Advisory Committee with parents from the five areas represented and delegates from various interested community agencies and organizations. This group, which served as a clearing house of parent education sources in the city and as a source of many ideas for the school system's program, has recently been

amalgamated with the Maryland Council on Family Relations.

In addition there has been a Principals' Committee on integrating parent education with the school program. This committee of fifteen Baltimore school principals has proved invaluable in suggesting ways the parent education program can collaborate more closely with the schools and in interpreting parent education to the school personnel as well as the school program to the parents. It has also given attention to the possibilities of promoting parent education informally as a by-product of parents' school activities—serving on committees, helping out in playgrounds or lunchrooms, participating in some classroom activities, and conferring with the school principal.

As an outgrowth of the work of this committee a number of schools have developed neighborhood committees to plan parent education programs in their schools. The committee usually consists of the principal, the parent education teacher, and several parents.

Finding and Training Leaders

Discovering leaders competent to carry out these varied offerings has been and continues to be a major problem. Since few colleges prepare specifically for parent education, it has been necessary to seek persons with training and experience in allied fields, providing them with supplementary preservice and and inservice training. The majority of the present staff members are married women with children, who have been teachers, social workers, nurses, or research workers. The majority of those carrying classes for parents of preschool children have had experience in kindergartens and nursery schools. Since all the work is on a part-time basis, it provides professionally trained married women with much needed opportunities for carrying on outside service while rearing a family.

Another large group of leaders has been drawn from the staffs of clinics and social agencies—especially for the groups in marriage and family relations, for fathers only, and for lone parents. They have included psychologists, psychiatrists, a pediatrician, and several social workers. Most of them conduct evening groups.

As needed, orientation courses have stressed human development, functional and dynamic psychology, and family relations. Training is also provided in group processes, discussion leading, role playing, and community resources. This training has been offered through weekly preservice courses including observation of experienced leaders and through monthly meetings and workshops led by professional parent education consultants.

The parent education groups themselves have proven effective recruiting agents, as have have also the parent cooperatives. Teachers and other professional women who leave their positions to marry and have children, enter these groups for help in guiding their families. The more gifted ones are soon recognized by the leaders who give their names to the supervisor for interviews and planning. A number have become outstanding teachers.

Recruitment of Participants

Considerable effort has had to be spent in publicizing these offerings in ways that will insure that all parents who might like to take advantage of them will know about them.

When new programs have been planned, fliers anouncing the fact have been distributed through the school principals for the children to take home. In addition, churches and branch libraries have given out leaflets to parents in their neighborhoods, and PTA's and other civic groups have circularized their members. Announcements in citywide and neighborhood newspapers and in the various bulletins and newsletters of schools and other organizations have also been made as have spot announcements on television and radio, especially during the parent education television programs. After many of the TV programs, telephone requests are received for further information about parent education groups or cooperatives.

But, the most effective means of interesting families is the person-to-person contacts of the parents who have found the work worthwhile. In fact, some of these parents have set up promotion committees and have canvassed potentially interested parents in their neighborhoods.

Recruitment has been less of a problem for the groups of parents of preschool children. More calls are received for information about them than about any other parts of the program. At the present writing, finding enough qualified teachers and adequate meeting places for observation projects is the more serious problem.

Another is helping young mothers accept the necessity for adequate training before starting their own parent cooperatives, for careful planning in their search for a competent teacher and suitable quarters, and for meeting the requirements of the health and

fire departments. Most of the groups which have had to have these needs emphasized in their preliminary planning have responded well to guidance in their regard.

A recruitment problem is posed, however, in regard to fathers. Today many students of the family are emphasizing the importance of bringing fathers back into a more central position in their children's lives. While the program has included occasional evening courses for fathers only, several open to both parents, and special "fathers' nights" in connection with the parent cooperatives, more stress needs to be put on efforts to reach fathers on a wider scale in all phases of the program.

As in most parent education programs, all offerings are less readily accepted in areas of lower economic and educational advantages. Because the average family size is likely to be larger in these areas than in more prosperous areas, many of the mothers have small children at home and so cannot leave home even during school hours. Also many mothers of school-age children work outside the home, and so cannot attend day classes. While evening classes are offered in some areas, working mothers are often too tired in the evening to want to attend even when they can afford babysitters. Nevertheless, groups are flourishing in some of the less privileged areas of the city under leaders having special gifts for working with underprivileged families.

This phase of the work has been handicapped at times by the necessity of sustaining the attendance legally required for the provision of a professional teacher through the Adult Education Division. Since underprivileged groups find it harder to maintain a steady average attendance, they more often have to be discontinued because of falling below the needed 10 or 15 persons.

This problem has been further complicated during the last 2 years by the recent introduction of a registration fee of $1 a term. While this small fee has made little difference in the more fortunate neighborhoods and is even reported to have had a stabilizing effect on some groups, in the lower income neighborhoods—where many of the parents are on the public assistance rolls—it also has resulted in the closing of several groups. While a teacher's organization and some interested individuals are providing scholarships for those who feel they cannot pay the fee, some of the parents will not admit their inability to spare this small sum, and they and the classes are both losers.

An urgent need for activities to help in the acculturation of in-migrants from the southern mountains has created a new problem. Many of these people are resistant to "city ways," and they and their children tend to remain outsiders in the community. More intensive attempts are being planned to reach these newcomers, perhaps through leaders meeting with small groups in homes in the neighborhood.

Evaluation

While there has been no attempt at formal evaluation of the effects of the parent education program, the fact that many parents have continued to participate in the program during all the years of their children's growth—changing groups with their child's age level—is evidence of value received, so also are such oft-heard remarks as "If only I'd had this with my first child!" or "It has really made our family life over!"

Hundreds of other comments, verbal and written, have been received from those who have participated. The following statements are not unusual in their tone:

• From a mother who attended the course in guiding preschool children's growth:

I started taking this course primarily to obtain the necessary certificate so my sons could get into a parent-cooperative nursery. I was rather skeptical that it would hold much real practical information for me inasmuch as I had had all the psychology, education, and sociology courses available for a 4-year college course in child guidance. But I was ever so wrong! The informality and friendliness of the course was a big change, and I feel that I gained many new insights into child behavior. It was also a deeply gratifying experience just to mix with other young mothers with similar experiences and problems to mine.

• From a mother who attended an observation course:

From observation of my own child and his playmates, I have gained an attitude of patience and understanding heretofore unrealized because I have learned to look for the reason behind the behavior instead of viewing only the behavior. Insight lends patience, and patience lends enjoyment. Enjoyment seems to lend answers.

• From a member of a discussion group:

I'm confident that in my knowledge of the successive growth processes I've found the key to guiding my child. What we expect, what we understand, we can handle. Worry will not be a constant thing now because of this knowledge. And without worry I can love him, enjoy him, and let him grow!

Such statements would seem to attest to the fact that the program in spite of ongoing problems, is helping a number of parents to increase their understanding, skills, and self-confidence as parents.

FOCUSED TREATMENT FOR CHILDREN AT HOME

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A FEW YEARS AGO, the Children's Bureau and the Child Welfare League of America developed a statement concerning the content of child welfare service [1] which said in part:

> **In its specific sense, then, child welfare denotes social work practice in providing social services to children and youth whose parents are unable or need help to carry their child-rearing responsibilities, or whose communities fail to provide the resources and protection that children and their families require. . . . Child welfare services are designed to reinforce, supplement, or substitute for parental functions which parents cannot perform fully; and to improve conditions for children and their families, if necessary, by modifying existing social institutions or organizing new ones.**

This definition embraces both services to children in their own homes and provision of foster care as legitimate concerns of child welfare agencies. However, many agencies providing child welfare services do not give enough attention to helping children in their own homes. A recent report concerning the 220,812 children receiving child welfare services from public agencies in 45 States reveals that only a little more than half of these were living in the homes of parents or relatives. Moreover, the proportion of children receiving services who were living with parents and relatives was slightly less than had been found 14 years ago.[2] No comparable figures on a national basis are available in regard to the children served by voluntary agencies, but the proportion served in their own homes may be even smaller.

The word "treatment" in the title of this article refers to the provision of *any type of social service* needed by the child and not exclusively to casework. The word "focus" suggests first that the treatment efforts be directed toward that particular difficulty which interferes with the child's welfare. But also, the word "focus" suggests keeping an eye on the goal. Focus in treatment then requires not only specifically diagnosing what is the trouble, but also treating with specific goals in mind.

Casework, of course, nearly always has the dual goal of helping the individual achieve greater satisfaction for himself and helping him be more socially productive. A statement so generalized, however, provides little help in defining exactly what it is the social caseworker is trying to help individuals and families accomplish. Moreover, it is not always clear, even to the caseworker, what is meant by these large, unspecified goals of social productivity and personal satisfactions.

The only way in which an individual can find satisfactions is in the free use of his physical, intellectual, and emotional energies. Usually these energies can find expression within the established social institutions, the most basic of which, of course, is the family. An adult finds pleasure in the love-making which is part of marriage, in sharing with the spouse the joy of watching baby take his first steps, in figuring whether the family budget can stand the purchase of a new rug, or a watermelon, or a motor boat, or a trip to the mountains. The children learn from within the family group the meaning of affection, of quarreling and making up, of sharing and of competing.

Another social institution, the economic system, provides the individual with opportunity to use the strength of his body, his mind, and his creative talents while earning money to buy the necessities and amenities of life. The religious institutions provide him with an opportunity for spiritual expression.

Based on a paper presented at the 1961 forum of the National Conference on Social Welfare.

Formal or informal groups of people provide him with an opportunity for friendly communication with others, recreation, intellectual stimulation, and relaxation.

These and other social institutions provide the individual with opportunities for achieving satisfactions for himself and for contributing to the satisfactions of others.

What does the individual need during his childhood in order to become an adult able to use his vitality freely enough to achieve such satisfactions and to contribute to society? We can list six types of needed experiences:

1. Sufficient food and adequate physical care (including medical care and attention) to enable him to feel comfortable.

2. Stimulation of his senses and his mind so that he may perceive his environment with as little distortion as possible.

3. Help in developing his special talents, in overcoming his special difficulties, and in learning how to earn a living, to stand up for his rights, and to exercise his responsibilities as a citizen.

4. Orientation to and acquaintance with the institutions of society.

5. Association with his peers.

6. The experience of a continuity of relationship with adults who love and care for him—preferably, a man and a woman married to each other, and glad that they are, whose own perception of reality is relatively undistorted, and whose own standards of behavior are accepted by society.

Parents and Community

Modern parents, however capable they may be, are not expected to be a self-sufficient unit in providing their children with all the experiences they need. Consider the many health, educational, and recreational institutions that stand ready to help in this. Indeed, sometimes differentiation between the adequate parent and the neglectful parent is not so much in terms of the parents' own skills and knowledge as in terms of their willingness to use the specialized services available. For example, parents today, unlike parents in an earlier time, must obey compulsory education laws. They have lost the prerogative of deciding for themselves whether they shall send their children to school.

As society comes to regard certain experiences as necessary for children, it tends to provide the institutional structures for these experiences and then to hold parents responsible for making use of them. Unfortunately, however, there is frequently a lag between the time when social needs arise and the provision of the services. Not only parents, but communities too, must be held responsible for providing necessary growth-inducing experiences for children.

Obviously, a considerable share of the community responsibility falls upon the social welfare services. They must include a continuum of child welfare services ranging from those which bring about the least radical changes in a child's experience—such as the improvement of parent-child relationship—to those which bring about the most radical changes, such as placing the child away from his own home.

The capacity for parenthood is not a unitary trait, but is a composite of many kinds of capacities. Focusing attention upon the varieties of experiences which children need forces those serving children to be much more specific in assessing the capacities of individual parents to meet the children's specific needs. Furthermore, it helps the worker to distinguish between those needed experiences which can be supplied through extra-familial sources and those which the child can experience only within the family.

Some Current Tendencies

Certain identifiable tendencies in current practice might be modified if treatment were more sharply focused on providing children with the types of experiences they need. One such tendency is to make the more radical change—placement of the child—without careful appraisal of whether other forms of help to the family might make it possible for them to provide adequately for the child within his own home.

A second tendency, paradoxically, is just the opposite. Family situations identified as hazardous to the welfare of the children are permitted to continue as they are if, after a period of time, the agency is unsuccessful in effecting change. Social agencies sometimes withdraw from a case rather than to carry through a responsibility to remove children from their homes.

Related to this second tendency is a third. Services are sometimes provided in the home with a certain vague apprehension that the situation is not a good one for childen, but without a clear delineation of the specific hazards or deprivations which the

child suffers therein, or a clear perception of the specific qualities of the parents or facets of the family's situation which have a negative impact upon the child.

A fourth tendency has been for social workers to direct most of their concern to just two of the types of experiences which children need—adequate physical care and affectional relationships. This has come about because we have learned a great deal about the impact of deprivations of these two types of experience. For children whose major problems have been physical care or affectional relationships, uncomplicated by other considerations, it might be said that treatment has been focused.

Complicated Problems

I should like now to examine briefly the possibilities of focused treatment in behalf of the many children who live in three types of families—the economically deprived family, the broken family, and the problem-ridden or so-called "hard-to-reach" family. I use the term "so-called" in regard to the "hard-to-reach" since social agencies for a long time did little to put themselves within the reach of many of these problem-ridden families, expecting them to do all the reaching. As Alice Overton and others have found, when agency workers begin to do some of the reaching out themselves, many of these families respond to their help.[3-5]

Obviously, these three groupings of families cannot be regarded as mutually exclusive. Many children undoubtedly live in families to which all three of the designations apply—economically deprived, broken, and problem-ridden.

In the comments which follow, only a few of the effects of these types of family situations upon the children will be identified, and no attempt will be made to provide case analyses and treatment plans. In arriving at a treatment plan for an individual family, an assessment of the specific nature of the interaction between situational pressures and personality structures in that particular family is always necessary.

It has been estimated variously that one-fourth, or one-fifth of the children in this country live in low-income families—depending on the definition of "low income." One such describes a low-income person as "one with an income equivalent to that of a member of a four-person family with total money income of not more than $2,500 in 1957 dollars."[6] Lenore A. Epstein has pointed out that "year after year certain groups of families tend to have lower incomes than the population as a whole" and that "prominent among these groups are nonwhite families generally, families where the head does not work full time throughout the year, and broken families—especially those headed by women."[6]

Effects of Low Income

As we have noted, adequate physical care, including medical care, is one type of experience needed by children. It is surely not necessary to dwell upon the obvious bad effects of low income upon the child's likelihood of receiving adequate food, clothing, and shelter. It may be necessary, however, to call attention to the implications for casework treatment of the deleterious effect of low income upon the amount and quality of medical care which the members of a family are likely to receive. Consider, for example, the cumulative effects of inadequate medical care upon a mother. *No social worker has a right to evaluate the quality of a mother's capacity to care for her children without having a good understanding of the mother's physical condition.* Fatigue, a low-energy level, a chronic low-grade infection—these are but some of the factors which diminish a mother's capacity to respond to the constant needs of her children for physical care, for attention, for affection.

Low income also affects the child's chances of receiving adequate medical attention. Have social agencies used volunteers as often as they might in helping mothers get their children to clinics? When the family income is very low, taking the child to a clinic may mean that the mother has to make a choice between paying two bus fares or buying two loaves of bread.

Social workers sometimes urgently press a mother to take a child to a clinic in spite of the fact that she may have no one with whom to leave her other children and so must go through the exhausting ordeal of taking all of them with her. Perhaps, to the personnel already available on some agency staffs—caseworkers, psychologists, group therapists, homemakers and psychiatric consultants—agencies need to add babysitters who can be available to go into a home while the mother undertakes the clinic trips urged upon her.

While the concept of "togetherness" may be an ideal for suburban families with a car and plenty of space, in the low-income family, living in close quarters, "togetherness" is a grim overdone reality. In the middle-income family the parents can pay a babysitter in order to have an occasional evening

out by themselves. They can send the children to camp for a few weeks in the summer. If illness strikes the mother, they can secure household help. For low-income families, the supply of community supported homemaker services to help out even in grave emergencies is way below the need.

Broken Families

Children in broken families, particularly those of low income, experience additional hazards, arising from the antagonism or disregard of the public.

Much adverse criticism has been leveled against public assistance departments for granting aid to unmarried mothers, and sometimes, even for aiding divorced mothers and those separated from their husbands. The theme of this criticism is the charge that the availability of assistance produces the broken family. Little attention is paid to the fact that a much larger number of children are being cared for in broken families headed by a woman who is not receiving public assistance than are being provided for by public assistance.

The inadequacy of the provisions for day care of children of working mothers has been well substantiated.[7] Some of these working mothers have had to make a choice between using all of their meagre earnings for food, clothing, and shelter and other necessities, or deflecting some of it into payment for the care of the children while they work. The community cannot have it both ways. It cannot complain about the cost of adequate public assistance to mothers in behalf of their children and at the same time be critical of mothers for working or for not making adequate provision for the care of their children while they work. Many working mothers are handicapped in their efforts to provide day care for their children because the day care facilities are too expensive or too inaccessible. And, in some localities of course, such facilities are not available.

In 1959, one out of very 11 families with children was a one-parent family. There may be casework or group work agencies, or churches, or schools which have sponsored groups to which these lone parents might come for counseling in regard to their especially heavy child-rearing responsibilities, but, if there are, they are far from common. However, in some instances, such parents have taken the initiative to form groups for discussion of their common problems.

Marriage counseling, to prevent family breakdown and enhance family living, is one of the oldest forms of casework service and continues to be a primary function of family casework agencies. However, few social agencies have faced the fact that a significant proportion of the adult population consists of persons who, after the dissolution of a marriage, must adjust to a new status, and of persons who find themselves to be stepparents to children of their spouse's former marriage. While the social work literature contains many articles referring to individual clients as widowed, divorced, or separated, and many articles describing conflict within a parent-child-stepparent constellation, there are few, if any, articles calling attention to some of the common stresses and strains inherent in the one-parent family or formulating general principles concerning treatment approaches in such situations.

Problem-Ridden Families

Children living within problem-ridden families may experience all of the hazards so far mentioned plus others which interfere with their receiving adequate physical care. In these families, the mothers often do not have the necessary knowledge and skills to carry on their homemaking responsibilities. Income management, wise food buying, food preparation, dealing with individuals who affect the family living—the landlord, the grocer, the employer—are for them insuperable tasks.

Reports from various experimental projects, including the St. Paul project,[3] have been consistent in stressing the point that casework services to be effective with these families must be directed toward giving the parents practical help in increasing their knowledge and skills so that they may function more effectively on the sites of behavior—in the household as a homemaker and a parent, on the job, and with friends. Impulsive, acting-out behavior, characteristic of many individuals in these families, is more likely to be clinically identifiable as a manifestation of a "character disorder" than as an indication of neurosis. For them, at least in the beginning of treatment, exploration of feelings is not only painful but may be damaging and destructive.

Stimulation of the senses and the mind has been mentioned as an important requirement in child development. In years to come we may learn much more about the effect of sensory experience upon the actual structure of the personality. Already, psychologists have conducted experiments in which some perfectly normal persons, when subjected to conditions depriving them of sensory experiences, developed pathological symptoms. In the absence of sensory stimulation, the subjects had hallucinations

and developed other distorted ideas. Of course, these experiments created conditions of extreme sensory deprivation. However, knowledge of what happens in extreme conditions can sometimes lead to knowledge about the subtle effects of the same phenomena in less extreme form.

In social work practice, we have learned that young children in institutions often do not develop normally. We should recognize that these children are deprived not only of close relationships with adults, but often also of normal opportunities for learning through their senses. We know too that old people rapidly deteriorate if they are placed in a routinized, unstimulating, institutional environment.

An experiment in activity group therapy for children in a family agency has shown that "material things, such as arts and crafts supplies, money for trips, and food, assume a particularly crucial meaning to the severely deprived group members." [8] The use of these items stimulated children to reenact conflicts experienced within family relationships. Brought into the open, therapists could help children deal with their feelings about them. I would suggest that for children in deprived and overburdened families, the value simply of having access to material things should not be underestimated.

Education

We have mentioned the importance of helping the child to develop his special talents and to overcome his special difficulties. This is primarily the responsibility of the schools. Social workers, however, have a responsibility to be knowledgeable about the relationship between the social structure and individual behavior.

It requires little imagination to realize that the children of poverty, of broken families, and of problem-ridden families are among those whose educational opportunities are restricted. Sometimes the restriction comes from the child's own failure to be interested in learning—a lack often associated with failure to receive sensory stimulation in the home and with the attitudes toward education of those around him. But the school difficulties may also be associated with the amount of stimulation provided within the school and the relation of the school's program to what the young person perceives as a realizable goal.

Dr. James B. Conant has pointed to the deplorable conditions of the schools in some of our large-city slums,[9] conditions which result in large numbers of young people dropping out of school as soon as they pass the age of compulsory school attendance and before they have acquired any skills for making a living. Eligible only for routine, dead-end jobs, these young people often have as negative an attitude toward work as they do toward education. For them, vocational training and counseling and education in work attitudes—attained through positive work experience—may be far more effective in reducing behavioral difficulties than any amount of casework therapy. Erik Erikson maintains that "young people must have learned to enjoy a sense of workmanship in order not to need the thrill of destruction." [10]

An agency worker "reaches out" to the family of an overburdened mother, who struggles through the complex of problems created by low income, to meet the constant demands of her children for physical care, attention, and affection.

On the other hand, in some States young people who do have an interest in achieving an education are forced to drop out of school when they pass the age of compulsory school attendance because they are no longer eligible for public assistance under the aid-to-dependent-children program.

Another important factor in the child's development, his orientation to the social institutions, is ordinarily affected by his parents' helping him to understand the meaning and value of the family, the church, the school, the economic system, and the other less formal institutional structures. In many problem-ridden families, the parents have been separated and alienated from the fabric of community life. They must be helped to reestablish themselves

into the community if the child is also not to be so alienated.

In addition to the reaching-out casework approaches which have been found effective, some social agencies today are trying to do this by working with groups of parents who could not be reached in the one-to-one casework relationship, or by using group work in conjunction with casework.[11, 12] While the aim of such activities is to help parents function more effectively as parents, there is reason to believe that they have also helped the parents to develop the tools of communication which can make it easier for them to take their place in community activities.

Another encouraging development is taking place in some public housing projects where group workers have been effective in helping tenants learn to work together in project councils, creating their own rules of expected tenant behavior so that both property and morale can be maintained.

In Summary

The most important ingredient for healthy child development is the experience of affection. This is important, not only for the child's sake, but also for society's, for it is by being loved and cared for that the child develops a conscience. Many of the approaches to parents suggested in this article have the dual intent of freeing their energies so that they can offer more affection to their children, and of helping them develop standards of behavior which are congruent with community standards.

It cannot be assumed that such efforts will always be successful, nor should it be assumed that the child is altogether dependent upon family members for developing standards of behavior. Opportunities for wholesome identifications with other significant adults which serve as a dynamic in the child's behavior are increased as the child is helped to relate himself to some of the social institutions of the community.

In recapitulation, I want to stress the following points:

1. Treatment in behalf of children in their own homes must take into account the varieties of experiences which children need for satisfactory development.

2. Focus in treatment can be achieved only by defining the ways in which the child's situation fails to provide him with the needed experiences.

3. Such an assessment of need will make it possible to use a wider range of treatment techniques and methods, resulting in a lessened tendency to fall back on placement of the child away from home. With the child remaining in his own home the parents can be helped to provide different kinds of experiences for him within and outside the home, and to add extrafamilial persons to the circle of individuals who provide the child with constructive experiences.

4. Treatment in behalf of children involves the provision of many different kinds of experiences through a wide range of persons and is not the monopoly of social workers. The doctor, the nurse, the teacher, minister, the neighbor and employer, the homemaker, the day-care worker, and many other persons as well as the social group worker and the caseworker might, in various combinations, be thought of as the treatment team.

5. That part of the definition of child welfare must be taken seriously which states that it is also a function of child welfare services "to improve conditions for children and their families, if necessary, by modifying existing social institutions or organizing new ones."

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GUARDIANSHIP FOR THE MENTALLY RETARDED

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PARENTS of normal children generally can look forward to the time when their children will achieve some measure of financial security and social prestige. For many of the retarded, however, in spite of the considerable expansion of educational and training resources that has taken place in recent years, these are still unattainable goals. For those among the retarded who are chronically dependent or semidependent persons, a lifetime plan of guidance, care, and supervision is needed.

The trend toward keeping mentally retarded children in their own homes and integrating them wherever possible into community programs and functions has focused attention on the need for long range planning for them. Many parents have demonstrated remarkable ingenuity and adaptability in meeting the immediate needs of such children. Yet even among the most adequate parents, today's successes are often marred by tomorrow's uncertainties. "Who will look after my retarded child's interests when I am gone or can no longer do so myself?"

The deep concern and anxiety reflected in this oft repeated question is well founded. Parents of retarded children—perhaps better than anyone else—fully realize the self-sacrifice and dedication often entailed in their care. When because of parental effort, the retarded child is happy, content, well-adjusted, and in many ways a contributing member to family and community life, the parents are apt to be reluctant to accept institutional care as the ultimate living arrangement for him. They cannot expect, nor indeed are many willing, to burden other members of the family with the often trying responsibilities of caring for and supervising a retarded adult. They hesitate to seek the assistance of friends for this purpose and fear that strangers may lack understanding of what their children need and how these needs may be fulfilled.

With advances in the medical sciences, the survival rate of damaged infants has been increased and their life expectancy prolonged. More and more, parents are faced with the likelihood that their retarded children will survive them. With machines displacing men from jobs and many families moving from one community to another, life in our society has become more complex. These changes sorely tax the capacities of the handicapped adult for independent functioning and social usefulness.

These developments have brought into sharp focus the need to re-examine existing measures for safeguarding and promoting the welfare of the retarded in case of parental death, disablement, or inadequacy.

Sometimes the need for guardianship stems not only from the incapacities of the retarded person, but from the inadequacies of his parents who are still living. In some cases, parents are unable to meet the physical, emotional, or behavioral problems of their retarded child and are unresponsive to professional efforts to help them. Where these conditions prevail, society, through its established agencies and social institutions, has a responsibility to protect the child's interests and rights and to provide opportunities wherein he may develop to his fullest potentialities. Though the legal rights of children may vary within States, this fundamental value in our culture is an inherent part of our social system as

it is expressed in our customs and in our laws.

Current practice in relation to guardianship and the concepts and philosophy underlying these practices vary greatly. A few States encourage guardianship arrangements under public welfare departments for all retarded persons, whatever the family's status and capacities and the individual's living arrangements. Most widespread, however, is the practice of vesting legal custody and sometimes guardianship responsibilities for the retarded in the superintendents of State institutions, but only for those persons who have been admitted to the institutions—approximately 4 percent of the mentally retarded population. Unfortunately, many families with retarded children at home, who do not plan for institutional placement, do not recognize the need for future guardianship arrangements.

Complexities in the present systems of guardianship are thus formidable obstacles in the long range planning many retarded persons need. Happily, the National Association for Retarded Children and its State and local affiliates are actively exploring different ways of planning for the future of the retarded. It has already launched upon a group insurance program. Among other techniques being considered are arrangements for guardianship.

Forms of Guardianship

The needs of the mentally retarded for protection have long been recognized in the legal systems of many countries and in all the States of the United States, and various methods have been developed to safeguard their welfare and protect their financial and personal interests. Traditionally they have been grouped with the mentally ill and with minors as being mentally incompetent to conduct their own affairs or to perform adult functions such as making wills or conducting litigation.

Various forms of guardianship have been utilized in efforts to promote their interests. These are of four kinds: guardians of the person; guardians of the property; general guardians (of person and property); and guardians *ad litem*, appointed solely in connection with court actions.[1]

In the main, there are relatively few instances of considerable property belonging to the mentally retarded just as there are in the population at large. Usually, the need for guardianship exists more in the area of personal concern and interest in their well-being than in relation to property. Therefore, the appointment of general guardians should probably be made more frequently than separate guardians of the person and of the property for the same individuals. A general guardian could well exercise the necessary fiscal care of moderate amounts of property and at the same time evince the degree of personal interest and concern which is so vital to the welfare of the mentally retarded. In any event, the capacities of the mentally retarded person's natural guardians for this role should be considered paramount. Others should not be substituted for natural guardians during the natural guardians' lifetime unless they are unable to fulfill the responsibilities inherent in guardianship.

Parents are recognized as the natural guardians of their minor children and of their mentally retarded children who reach the age of adulthood and have been *adjudged* incompetent. However, the existence of mental defect in an adult, no matter how apparent, does not automatically confer guardianship responsibilities on his parents. Although in many instances, controversial issues regarding the management of the retarded adult or his estate are not apt to arise, it may be a wise precaution for parents to seek an adjudication of their child's incompetence while they are living. In this way arrangements for future guardianship can be expedited and continuous protection of the child assured.

This concept of the need for a continuation of the natural guardianship functions for the adult retarded child is expressed in provisions of revenue laws concerning dependency exemptions, in social security legislation, particularly regarding eligibility of handicapped dependents for social insurance benefits, and in decisions regarding medical and other forms of care.

Individual Need

Mentally retarded persons—by definition—lack the intelligence and social competency to manage their own affairs with ordinary prudence and judgment. Within this broad definition, however, the range of incapacity is great. A fairly large proportion of the mentally retarded are only identifiable as such and actually function on a defective level only during their school-age years when the expectations and demands of a normal life exceed their abilities. At the age of majority, many of them become self-supporting, and need guidance and supervision only when confronted with situations of serious social stress. For these persons, guardianship may not be necessary.

However, the more severely handicapped or the

less socially adequate, lacking the capacity to act for themselves, need someone who can act in their behalf. Whatever their chronological age, they cannot be expected to behave responsibly in certain situations, to negotiate contracts, or to be liable for their misdeeds—especially in instances where they lack the intelligence to distinguish right from wrong. Even as adults they need social and legal protection against exploitation and also personal guidance toward social adjustment and training.

Retarded persons whose intellectual deficits stem primarily from social and cultural factors often differ markedly from persons who are retarded from other causes in many respects and have a greater capacity for self-direction and self-maintenance as adults. Hence the need for guardianship provisions in these cases is not always apparent. The need should be determined by careful interdisciplinary evaluation and subjected to periodic review, not only of the retarded person's capacity for self-reliance but of the environmental circumstances which may have dictated the need for guardianship in the first place.

Functions and Responsibilities

Much confusion exists in the public mind regarding the functions and responsibilities of legal guardians and how they differ from those of parents. For this reason, some parents hesitate to plan for such arrangements, and at times persons who could be potential guardians are somewhat reluctant to act in this capacity.

In many respects, guardianship and parenthood carry similar responsibilities.[1] Like the parent, the guardian becomes responsible for the care, custody, and control of the child. He is entrusted with authority to make important decisions regarding the well-being of his ward that may affect the individual's whole life. These decisions may involve medical care, employment, consent to marriage, and entry into the armed forces—all of which may be considerations for many of the retarded and problems about which they cannot be expected to exercise sound judgment.

Judicially appointed guardians, on the other hand, are subject to certain limitations to which parents are not subject. These stem from various legal aspects of guardianship. Guardianship—where minority is the basis for appointment—automatically terminates when the child attains his majority. This does not apply in cases based upon mental incompetency. In any case, while the guardianship is in force, the relationship is subject to continuing supervision and review by the court. The wide discretionary powers of the guardian are, in contrast to those of parents, exercised under court direction—at least in theory.

Aids in Planning

Planning for care, education, and treatment, or regulating behavior of the mentally retarded is often complicated by lack of resources and facilities, negative social attitudes, or limited opportunities. In many other instances, the most suitable plan for a retarded ward cannot be carried out because of very limited or totally unavailable financial assets. The guardian has no duty to support and educate the ward except from the ward's own estate, nor does he have any right to the ward's earnings and services.

Guardians cannot always be expected to have the special knowledge to handle effectively the sometimes complex situations involved in the care of a handicapped person. However, they can be helped to discharge their responsibilities toward a retarded ward more effectively when the supervision of the court is supplemented with skilled social services, competent advice, adequate safeguards of the ward's interest, and a plan suited to his special needs.

State laws generally define the conditions relating to the value and kind of property under which a guardian of property must be appointed to hold a fiduciary relationship to the ward. At times, the same person is appointed to act as guardian of the person and estate and is thus called a general guardian. Though this is often a highly desirable practice, where the property involved is not extensive, clarification is essential as to the respective powers and duties of each office. The guardian of the property's activities are confined primarily to the "prudent and economical management" of the estate entrusted to him and these activities are subject to court direction and periodic accounting to the court.

As fiscal responsibilities are better understood, especially as social insurance programs are expanded with wider coverage and larger benefits, parents may become more conscious of the various alternatives available to them in long-range planning for their retarded child. Already, as noted earlier, extensive efforts have been undertaken by parents' associations to familiarize their membership with group life insurance plans and other techniques for the future care and support of their retarded offspring.

Guardianship of mentally retarded children and adults then, particularly in the assumption of certain parental functions, is a weighty responsibility. It is

incumbent upon the courts therefore, and upon the parents who may designate their choice of guardians through last will and testament, to use the best judgment in their selections. Equally important, such appointments call for the availability of skilled social services to the court and guardian.

What happens when both parents die and no provision has been made for guardianship? Much will depend on the age and capacities of the retarded person himself. However, even the obviously retarded person who needs someone to protect his interests is not likely to come to court attention unless an action for dependency or institutional commitment or probate of an estate is initiated. These actions do not ensure that a guardian of the person will be appointed. Therefore, when a retarded person is bereft of his parents it is important that relatives, friends, neighbors, or others concerned with his welfare petition the court to appoint a guardian who will have responsibility for him. Where the welfare of the retarded person is in jeopardy, the public welfare agency has a responsibility for initiating the necessary protective measures, of which guardianship may be a crucial component.

Properly used, the guardian-ward relationship can serve to establish an atmosphere of affection, security, and recognition for the retarded person and contribute to his social growth and development.

Institutional Guardians

As already mentioned, in certain sections of the country it has become customary to replace natural guardians of the mentally retarded with institutional superintendents appointed to serve as guardians for those persons who are involuntarily committed by courts to institutions. Even in many instances of voluntary admissions, such guardians are appointed. The rationale behind such appointments, or the appointment of State welfare directors as guardians of noninstitutionalized persons, is that the appointees can make necessary decisions and promote the interests of their wards.

In practice these systems of public guardianship tend to become routine and stereotyped. The individual is easily lost sight of in these large-scale guardianship systems which are apt to become bookkeeping arrangements rather than socially significant efforts to aid the mentally retarded. Where a single guardian is responsible for hundreds or thousands of retarded persons, he cannot be expected to keep abreast of the individual's changing circumstances and needs. Often whatever action is taken is in response to emergencies or situations of stress, rather than to a positive plan for meeting anticipated needs. Furthermore, complicated legal and supervisory problems may arise when the retarded person is transferred from the institution to some other facility or is returned to the community on family or work placement. These are additional arguments for a one-to-one guardianship arrangement.

Moreover, the appointment of guardians, when parents would like to continue exercising their full responsibility and have demonstrated capacity to do so, is often a disservice to the retarded persons and to the parents themselves. In effect, the parents of children with institutional or State guardians are, or can be, precluded from manifesting a substantial interest in the welfare of these children in regard to many areas of life planning—placement in and release from foster care, special medical service, marriage. This exclusion of the parent militates against a strengthening of the natural ties between institutionalized persons and their families. Such an involuntary estrangement can weaken family relationships and impede the ultimate return of the mentally retarded person into family living. Hence the guardianship can result in a prolongation of the very problems the court action sought to alleviate.

Then too, when public guardians are appointed society is lulled into the belief that all the interests of the retarded are being protected, whereas in reality in many cases only a modicum of protection is afforded.

One of the objectives of guardianship for persons in institutional care, whether this be undertaken by a public guardian or a private citizen, is to facilitate their rehabilitation and return to community life. This objective is interfered with when commitment is accompanied by real or presumed loss of the retarded person's civil rights.

Recruitment and Termination

Guardians for the mentally retarded can be recruited by utilizing the specific interests of various groups of people. One of the principal sources might well be organizations of parents of the retarded where there is a common concern and background of meaningful experience in dealing with the mentally retarded. Many of the members might be encouraged to function productively as guardians. Such parents, particularly those who have resolved their personal conflicts about having a retarded child, possess a unique understanding, sympathy, and feeling for the mentally retarded. Consequently, they

could bring to bear a sympathetic interest which could not be duplicated easily by others.

Local bar associations might be another source of recruitment. The legal training and experience of members of the bar would be a valuable asset in a guardian. Moreover, having bar association members act in this capacity should enhance the interest of these organizations in the retarded.

Another recruitment source might be service groups—men's clubs, women's clubs, civic organizations, and the like. Many such groups are already actively engaged in volunteer work with the retarded and in the sponsorship of social and recreational programs.

An essential component in the productive functioning of guardians appointed from such sources would be cooperation between them and social service agencies within the community. By pooling their understanding of the mentally retarded, by joint planning, by interpretation of special problems and needs, they could accomplish much for the welfare not only of the mentally retarded but of the entire community. Local social agencies would seem to have a particular obligation to help recruit such guardians and to give them guidance and stimulus in their efforts.

Sometimes guardians appointed for the mentally retarded continue on long after the need for such guardianship has disappeared, as, for example, when the retarded person has achieved a degree of social competency where he can reasonably manage his own affairs. Thought should be given to arranging for a periodic review of guardianships in relation to individual circumstances and with regard to the manner in which the duties are carried out. As soon as it is shown that a person can function adequately without guardianship, the arrangement should be terminated. Where the responsibilities of guardianship are not being competently discharged, a successor guardian should be appointed. Generally, courts are required to supervise the activities of judicially appointed guardians. However, the extent to which supervision is exercised and the methods employed vary considerably. There is reason to believe that in practice there is more supervision of guardians of property than of guardians of the person. The vital role of the latter warrants greater community effort and concern in promoting the best possible safeguards.

Legislative Suggestions

It is perhaps time for States to review their laws and administrative practices regarding guardianship and other provisions for the mentally retarded. This can be done by the use of statewide citizens' committees charged with specific responsibilities for both study and report to the State legislature. Many statutory provisions need reexamination in the light of modern developments in psychology, social services, medicine, and other fields.

In such reviews special attention should be given to the clarification of judicial and administrative functions in respect to the mentally retarded and to the provision of services and legal protections which will improve the condition of mentally retarded individuals and promote their well-being.

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Our ability as a nation to carry our world leadership role may well rest on our ability to resolve with dispatch and through social justice our intergroup relations. Our youth, it seems to me, are our most valuable potential resource in this demand. If we continue to allow their attitudes toward racial, cultural, and religious differences to be those reflected in our unresolved intergroup conflict, we will have reared a new generation of socially and emotionally crippled adults unable to meet the demands of the world of tomorrow.

James R. Dumpson, New York City Commissioner of Welfare, to the 1961 meeting of the American Public Health Association.

An essay review . . .

EFFECTS OF THE ADOLESCENT CULTURE

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"THE ADOLESCENT Society," by James S. Coleman,* a sociologist at Johns Hopkins University, is a report of one of the more worthwhile investigations of adolescent behavior published in the past few years. Its basic assumption has become rather commonplace: that adolescents today look to each other rather than to adults for their social rewards; that they share and participate in a youth culture which "maintains only a few threads of connection with adult society." What is different and important about this book is that it delineates several components of the adolescent social system and explores the implications of them for educational theory and practice.

Recognizing that the effects of the adolescent culture are difficult to discover because of its pervasiveness, the author chooses the strategy of discovering these effects by examining variations in adolescent society among high schools. His investigations were made in 10 high schools, varying in size, socioeconomic status of the students' families, sponsorship (public or church), and other respects.

The major components of the adolescent social system selected by the author for investigation were its culture (values, norms, and customs), its status system which grants prestige only to some adolescents and activities, its elites and popular heroes, and its association patterns. The effects of these on adolescent scholarship, on their use of the mass media of communication, and on their self-evaluation were then examined. The results of these investigations are reported separately for boys and girls. Finally, the author considers the sources of adolescent value systems and the implications of system organization for policy and practice in secondary education.

*Coleman, James S. (with the assistance of John W. C. Johnstone and Kurt Jonassohn): The adolescent society; the social life of the teenager and its impact on education. The Free Press of Glencoe, New York, 1961. 368 pp. $6.95.

The Values

Turning first to the value climates of high schools, the author considers the academic achievement orientation of adolescents (how important are grades for being in the leading crowd and for being important in school and being looked up to), the prestige status of the child's family as related to membership in the leading crowd, the importance for the status of athletic achievement (for boys), and popularity with boys (for girls). He concludes that the ten schools are more alike than they are different in these values, but that there is enough variation among them to make it possible to investigate the effect of differences in emphasis on scholastic achievement, family background, and athletic achievement or popularity.

The author also identifies the informal elites (the popular heroes and leaders) within each of the schools and then compares their orientations with the orientations of the non-elites. He concludes that elites are only slightly less oriented to parents than are non-elites yet they do not turn for direction to teachers or to close friends. Rather, they turn to the teenage society as a whole with its rituals and activities.

The criteria for success in the status system are analyzed by comparing boys who are seen by their peers as the best athletes with those who are seen as the best scholars and by comparing girls in terms of the criteria of "beauty" and "brains." Persons who work with adolescent boys will not be surprised to learn from the results that in general, athletic stardom stands above academic achievement as a symbol of success. However, the author finds variation in the extent to which emphasis is placed on these values. While unable definitely to show the source of these differences, he suggests that they lie in the extent to which scholastic achievement has an independent status in the school. In some schools the pure scholar is rewarded, while in others he is rewarded only if he gains recognition in other activities such as athletics.

No less expected is the author's finding that successful girls are more likely to be those who are popular with boys than those who are scholars. Variations among schools in the emphasis given to scholastic achievement or popularity for girls show that the social-class level of the school is important. Brains in a girl is devalued in the schools in middle-class neighborhoods.

The structures of the students' associations are presented and analyzed only in respect to the smaller schools, since the author believed that the kind of consideration permissible in a report of this nature would only lead to gross oversimplification if such an analysis were attempted on the students in a large school. However, his analysis revealed differences between boys and girls as well as among schools in the association structures. Among boys in all schools, he found that athletic achievement plays such an important role in determining clique status dominance that it precludes dominance by a non-school oriented factor, such as the socioeconomic status of parents. Among girls, socioeconomic status of parents and the values and behaviors of teachers and school administrators apparently play a more important role.

Effects on Behavior

The report gives less attention than one might wish to the effects of the adolescent status system on adolescent behavior, examining these effects only in respect to scholastic achievement, exposure to mass media, and self-evaluations. The analysis shows that when the adolescent social system fails to give an adolescent status and to allow him a positive self-evaluation, he often escapes from negative self-evaluation through submersion in the mass media. It also shows that only in achieving status in those systems which highly reward achievement in an activity (such as dating, friendship, or athletics) can the adolescent "feel good" about himself and not want to be someone different. The author concludes that since only a narrow range of activities brings social rewards within the adolescent social system, only a small percentage of all students are given a chance to "feel good" about themselves.

One example of the effects of the status system on attitudes toward scholastic achievement is the finding that a smaller proportion of the boys chosen by their peers as best students wanted to be remembered as brilliant students than of the boys chosen as the best athletes who wanted to be remembered as athletic stars. However, the best students among the boys were more likely to want to see themselves as scholars than were best students among the girls.

In looking for the sources of adolescent value systems, the author focuses mainly on the effects of the structure of adolescent activities in the status system of the school. He concludes that the school forces the scholar to choose between being selfish by studying hard and being unselfish by pursuing goals which bring glory to the school, principally through athletics. The study testifies to the fact that this is a hard choice.

Implications for Practice

A great merit of this book is the willingness of the sociologist Coleman to struggle with the implications of his findings for school policies and practices. He is not content simply to describe and analyze. As he states in his preface, he has had, since his own high-school days, a deep concern with the question of how to make possible the better functioning of schools in relation to their explicitly stated goals and how to discover ways in which learning may be more profitable during adolescence and adolescence a more satisfying period. It is to these questions that he turns in a final chapter.

Reading this last chapter should be rewarding to most practitioners since it contains few of the usual platitudes urging that something be done without saying what. In it, for example, the author maintains that any attempt to do away with competition as a motivating device in schools would probably fail since it would be based on several important misconceptions about learning and competition. Competition, he points out, is fundamentally a contest for respect and recognition from those around one.

Rather than trying to do away with competition, he suggests that the schools strengthen their alternative competitive models. One approach he suggests is to develop intramural and intrascholastic competition in scholastic matters for the impersonal competition for grades which now characterizes schools. These might include scholastic games, science fairs, "math" tournaments, music contests, and the like. While the reader may disagree with some of Coleman's suggestions for policy or practice, he should most certainly be left with a feeling that their incorporation into the study report makes possible a more intelligent formulation of policy in secondary education.

If the reader is left with some disappointments after finishing this book, these will probably be due to omissions rather than to errors committed. However, he will probably agree with this reviewer that the author is a sophisticated sociologist who is as aware of what he might have done and what he would like to have done as he is of what he has done.

Some readers may wish, for example, that the author had studied a few public schools in the Great Metropolis. Others will be disappointed that there is little material on the school within the community context, or of the adolescent society embedded in the matrix of the school itself in relation to the goals and practices of teachers and administrators. Still others may feel that the bifurcation of the investigation and analysis in relation to boys and to girls leaves one with an incomplete understanding of the adolescent society of boys *and* girls. Finally, others will feel that the observed differences among schools are in many instances so small that the case made is hardly demonstrated.

This is, then, not only an incomplete analysis of the adolescent social system, but one that fails to investigate how this system is embedded in the larger matrix of the school and of the school in that of society. But, how much can one expect!

This study relies almost entirely upon survey interview and questionnaire techniques to gather the data used in testing its hypotheses. Among the types of information obtained from students were sociometric choice-rejection patterns, their value preferences, self-evaluations, and attitudes. Some information also was gathered from school records and published sources. These data are systematically brought to bear on the main hypotheses of the study. However, the absence of any clear-cut criteria for determining the "statistical significance" of findings or the contribution of factors in explaining behavior will trouble some investigators. Others will be troubled by the fact that techniques of social observation were not employed in gathering data on the youth culture or the behavior of adolescents.

In the opinion of this reviewer, the survey techniques are judiciously and capably handled in this investigation, and reveal that much can be learned about youth culture and behavior through the use of such techniques. Nevertheless the study would have been enhanced if other techniques had also been used in gathering information and if other facets of the organizational system in which youth culture is enmeshed had been investigated.

To be sure, growing up has never—in the recorded history of man—been an easy process. But in this age of modern science, of anxiety and insecurity, of automation and technological change, the difficulties and the problems of growing up have assumed unprecedented dimensions. Our adult world presents youth with impossible expectations and frustrating contradictions. . . . we have demanded of youth that they act like adults, possess an adult sense of responsibility, acquire adult skills and knowledge while denying to them any of the significant rewards and experiences of family, of employment, of citizenship that serve as our own most powerful incentives.

Wilbur J. Cohen, Assistant Secretary, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, to the White House Regional Conference, Detroit.

BOOK NOTES

EXPLORING THE BASE FOR FAMILY THERAPY; papers from the M. Robert Gomberg Memorial Conference. Edited by Nathan W. Ackerman, Frances L. Beatman, and Sanford N. Sherman. Family Service Association of America, New York. 1961. 159 pp. $4.

The editors introduce this collection of papers, from a 1960 interdisciplinary conference focused on family, with the prediction that any breakthrough in the treatment of behavior disturbances will come from a conceptual fusion of the psychological and the social—a fusion already existing in theories of family therapy in which family processes are regarded as a basis for treatment.

The book's 14 authors write from the vantage points of social work, psychiatry, sociology, psychology, or anthropology. They deal with the family as the keystone of all human institutions; the concept of family in casework theory; trends toward preventive practice in family service; intrafamilial alignments and splits in exploratory family theories; biosocial integration in the families of schizophrenics; techniques of family psychotherapy; and psychiatric developments in family therapy.

Recurrent themes among the papers call for a linking of forces between family social work and the social and behavioral sciences; and for a heavier accent, in the development of theory of family processes, on health instead of pathology. The editors are with the Jewish Family Service of New York.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF HUMAN GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT. Warren R. Baller and Don C. Charles. Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, New York. 1961. 432 pp. $5.50.

Throughout its 15 chapters, the authors of this text for prospective school teachers stress the value to the teacher of developing sensitivity to pupils' needs and drives.

The book discusses sources of behavior patterns such as inherited and prenatal influences and the physical and emotional factors affecting personality development, including the roles of the school and of the child's own concept of self.

Included is material designed to help the student teacher to synthesize these theories for use in the classroom—and to "see the individual steadily, and to see him whole."

Authors Baller and Charles are from the University of Nebraska and State University of Iowa, respectively.

PARENTAL ATTITUDES AND CHILD BEHAVIOR. Edited by John C. Glidewell. Charles C Thomas, Springfield, Ill. 1961. 253 pp. $8.50.

Does a mother's growing feeling of impotence in influencing her child cause his psychiatric disturbance, or does her feeling stem from the disturbance? Or is the cycle sparked by the child's unexpected behavior, leaving the mother self-doubting, generating more deviant acts by the child, and so on . . ? Concerned with ways of determining the answer to this and other questions related to parent-child interaction, 20 scientists working in sociology, psychology, and psychiatry took part in a conference on "Research in Parental Attitudes and Child Behavior," in St. Louis during 1960—their deliberations forming the core of this book.

The conference was the second in a series of annual workshop conferences on community mental health research sponsored by the Social Science Institute of the Washington University, St. Louis, as part of a community mental health research training program in which the social sciences are applied to the understanding of mental health phenomena and analysis of the practice of prevention.

The 14 papers are arranged in three parts, the first devoted to reports of research in findings related to maternal attitudes and child behavior, the second, to an edited version of spontaneous comments made at the conference on the current status of research in parental attitudes, and the third, to post-conference papers pointing towards paths of future enquiry. In a final chapter, the editor, the institute's program director, sums up and compares major lines of thought with a liberal sprinkling of his own speculations as to the form and focus of future research.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN AMERICAN SOCIETY. Harry Manuel Shulman. Harper, New York. 1961. 802 pp. $8.

This college text and source book for the professional groups concerned with juvenile delinquency represents an attempt to synthesize points of view developed over the past 40 years of practice in child guidance casework, clinical psychology, correctional administration and criminological research. The author, professor of sociology at the College of the City of New York, uses a basic sociological orientation, describing the social pressures on children in our culture that push them towards deviant conduct.

There are 30 chapters grouped under 8 headings encompassing legal aspects, research, social roots, psychiatric and psychological considerations, and group and individual treatment approaches to control. The author regards society's current strategy of control as ambivalent: on the one hand, punitive, and on the other, demanding a variety of treatment methods—neither approach thus far producing evidence of being effective. He calls for the greater use of social sciences for systematic study of existing legal, practitioner, and community efforts toward prevention and control; and for more prodding into the deeper meaning of worldwide juvenile unrest, which he sees as but one of the manifestations of "the malaise of the spirit of our times."

DYNAMICS OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT. Horace B. English. Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York. 1961. 461 pp. $5.75.

"Girls," observes the author of this book, "are not only as nice as boys, but, from a psychological point of view, probably more important. For the girls will grow up to be the homemakers of the next generation." The theme of home as nurturing matrix for the child's development is diffused throughout this

textbook for teacher training, which has been written with an eye on the needs of parents as well.

The work is an updated, reorganized version of "Child Psychology," by the same author, who holds the post of professor of educational psychology at Ohio State University.

Two of the 14 chapters are devoted to discipline and authority.

Other chapters deal with emotion, motivation, the psychology of physical development, intellectual achievement, social behavior in childhood, and friendship and love in the development of personality. The author's concluding words develop the idea that the child needs help not only in the experience of receiving love but also in giving it.

NARRATIVE OF A CHILD ANALYSIS: the conduct of the psychoanalysis of children as seen in the treatment of a 10-year-old boy. Melanie Klein. Basic Books. New York. 1961. 496 pp. $10.

The way drawings freely executed by 10-year-old Richard—his mother colored light blue, a red-red father, and a yellow starfish brother—were used as major tools in penetrating the deep layers of this young patient's mind is demonstrated in this book about the play-therapy technique of psychoanalysis developed by the author. Her account of 93 clinical sessions with the boy, and comments on specific techniques applied during each, show how his persecutory anxieties are lessened through analysis relating to internal objects and destructive impulses and through bettering his relationship with his "good object," in this case his mother. Ego reinforcement followed.

Reproductions of 74 drawings, 31 in color, depict, through differences in form, color, and treatment, the changing roles of the stellar figures in Richard's life.

MENTAL RETARDATION; readings and resources. Jerome H. Rothstein. Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, New York. 1961. 628 pp. $6.75.

The editor, professor of education at San Francisco State College, has gathered together 56 articles, by almost as many authors in a variety of disciplines, into this source book of information about the mentally retarded and their educational opportunities, for professional workers and parents.

Beginning with a review of the definitions of mental retardation and of past treatment of the retarded, the articles consider various aspects of problems and methods of assessment, diagnosis, and classification; implications for services and preventive efforts; learning theories and school programs; parent counseling; national, State and local programs; teacher qualifications; and research needs.

The editor has reinforced this collection with tables and charts, the latter including a correlation of the book's readings with some of the basic texts on the subject and a comparison of the terminology regarding mental retardation used by various professional groups and organizations. He has also studded the book with other supplementary materials—lists of films, other audiovisual materials, curriculum guides for educable and trainable mentally retarded children, reading lists for parents, and data on public services for these children.

THE HERITAGE OF AMERICAN SOCIAL WORK: readings in its philosophical and institutional development. Ralph E. Pumphrey and Muriel W. Pumphrey. Columbia University Press, New York. 1961. 452 pp. $10.

The lines along which social welfare developed philosophically and practically are mirrored in this documentary history, which counts among its aims assisting social work "out of adolescence into a maturity which builds on, rather than rejects, its history."

Excerpts from selected documents, representing public and private programs and diverse client groups and settings, are grouped into historical eras. The Colonial period—opening with "He Who Would Not Work Must Not Eat," by Captain John Smith—includes selections from the Elizabethan Poor Law and ends with the Revolution. The early national period spans the events up to the Pierce veto in 1854 of a bill to appropriate Federal lands to the States for mental hospitals, which halted a trend toward greater Federal responsibility in social welfare.

The period of national expansion includes reports of the early beginnings of social work conferences, of State boards of public welfare, of the settlement movement, of the charity organization movement, and the social work education. The period of professionalism—beginning with a paper by Mary Richmond and ending with the Supreme Court decision on the constitutionality of the Social Security Act—contains papers and documents showing social workers' efforts up to and through the Great Depression of the thirties to develop a variety of methods and techniques, while continuing to play leading roles in attacking major social problems.

STUTTERING AND WHAT YOU CAN DO ABOUT IT. Wendell Johnson, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis. 1961. 208 pp. $3.95.

Beginning with the author's own experience as a stutterer and his parents' persistent but fruitless search for a cure, this book tells about the author's participation in studies at the Iowa Speech Clinic seeking the defect's origin and requiring considerable self-analysis by the investigator. "What started out as a spirited exercise of curiosity turned into more than a quarter of a century of research," he writes.

Eleven chapters, which are addressed to all associated with stutterers and stuttering, tell the story of this research and of parallel efforts toward prevention and cure of the disorder.

Among the book's main themes—some brought to life through snatches of verbatim interviews—is the irrelevancy to stuttering of right- and left-handedness. The author stresses the fact that, contrary to popular belief, stuttering is learned behavior born of doubt and fear, rather than a disorder of muscle function.

LANGUAGE AND THE DISCOVERY OF REALITY; a developmental psychology of perception. Joseph Church. Random House, New York. 1961. 245 pp. $4.

That the individual's psychological maturity can be measured largely by the way he thinks about reality is a key precept in this work on the acquisition of knowledge, particularly language, and the behavioral changes that accommodate this knowledge. The first section, on the preverbal period of growth, demonstrates that the young infant sees meanings rather than objects: He is oblivious to the sirens of

the firetruck outside, but "may well be in distress if the mother sneezes in the next room."

Then, size, shape, color, and the relationship of objects become more objective and less "projective," observes the author. He suspects that an empathetic-like process underlies all communication and is basic to identification. The child's first use of language is skimpy, but he "almost immediately senses this new tool's power, which at its highest development becomes the power to capture the world in a net of symbols," in fact, to "turn the universe inside out."

Following a series of discussions on subjects ranging from meaning and reference to emotion and motivation, the author advises psychologists to pay more attention to the role of environment in shaping our behavior and not to justify their principles by reference to those of physiology or physics. In his opinion psychology ought to do more research in the distinctly human areas of functioning, instead of concentrating on the "basic" processes.

The author is associate professor of child psychology at Vassar College.

50TH ANNIVERSARY, CHILDREN'S BUREAU

PLANS are underway both inside and outside of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare for celebration of the 50th anniversary of the Children's Bureau, created by an Act of Congress on April 9, 1912, to provide the Nation with a special arm of government for promoting the health and well-being of its young. The celebrations, beginning with a special issue of CHILDREN for March–April, will focus on children today and in the future and will involve a number of other special publications and at least one major event—an all-day symposium and dinner meeting in Washington on April 9, sponsored by the Citizens Committee for the Golden Anniversary Celebration of the Children's Bureau.

Plans for the Citizens Committee's celebration were spearheaded by an 18-member organizing group of national leaders in the health and welfare fields, including a number from national voluntary agencies, under the chairmanship of Melvin A. Glasser, Dean of University Resources for Brandeis University, and one-time associate chief of the Children's Bureau. In a letter last August apprising the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, Abraham A. Ribicoff, of the fact that a number of individuals associated with health and welfare services wished to organize a celebration of the anniversary, Mr. Glasser noted that the Bureau "has established principle and showed the way for Federal responsibility and leadership in the prevention of child labor and in programs of health and welfare which subsequently have been reflected in activities far beyond the children's field itself."

The Secretary has offered his full cooperation with the plan. Katherine B. Oettinger, Chief of the Children's Bureau is serving as the Department's liaison with the group. Staff services and headquarters have been furnished to the organizing group by the National Association of Social Workers, which is also working with its chapters in recognizing this anniversary.

The theme of the April 9 meetings will be "National Goals for Children." About 1,000 persons whose activities are closely involved with the concerns of the Children's Bureau will be invited to attend. Chairman of the program committee is Mrs. Randolph Guggenheimer of New York.

The full roster of the Citizens Committee has at this writing not yet been completed. Members of the organizing group, besides Mr. Glasser, are: Leona Baumgartner, M.D., commissioner, New York City Department of Health; Bertram Beck, associate executive secretary, National Association of Social Workers; Mrs. Richard J. Bernhard, president, Child Welfare League of America; Robert E. Bondy, director, National Social Welfare Assembly; Loula Dunn, director, American Public Welfare Association; Fedele F. Fauri, dean, University of Michigan School of Social Work; Mrs. Thomas Herlihy, Jr., Wilmington, Del.; Mrs. Clifford N. Jenkins, president, National Congress of Parents and Teachers; Donald E. Long, judge, Domestic Relations Department, Oregon Circuit Court; Norman V. Lourie, executive deputy secretary of welfare, Pennsylvania Department of Welfare; Mrs. H. Edmund Lunken, president, Association of the Junior Leagues of America; Leonard Mayo, director, Association for the Aid of Crippled Children; Margaret Mealey, executive director, National Council of Catholic Women; Mrs. E. Lee Ozbrin, president, General Federation of Women's Clubs; Myron E. Wegman, M.D., dean, University of Michigan School of Public Health; George M. Wheatley, M.D., medical director of health and welfare, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co.; and Whitney M. Young, executive director, National Urban League.

Special Issue of CHILDREN

The special anniversary issue of CHILDREN will be an extra-sized number, devoted to a consideration of the prospects of children in the world today and in the foreseeable future; the relevancy to these of the principles which have shaped our present health and welfare programs for children and young people; what we do and do not know about children generally; and the problems of applying what we do know in their behalf. Among the authors in this issue will be Katherine B. Oettinger; Leona Baumgartner; Leonard Mayo in collaboration with Joseph Reid, director of the Child Welfare League of America; Adelaide Sinclair, deputy director of UNICEF; Edwin Gold, director of obstetrics, Jewish Hospital of Brooklyn; Julius B. Richmond, M.D., professor and chairman of pediatrics, with Bettye Caldwell, research psychologist, State University of New York, Syracuse; and Eli Cohen, director of the National Committee on the Employment of Youth of the National Child Labor Committee.

HERE AND THERE

Inter-American Children's Institute

Meeting in Washington for the first time in its 34-year history, the Directing Council of the Inter-American Children's Institute held its 42d session of the Pan American Union October 16–20, with official representatives of all 21 American Republics in attendance.

Formerly known as the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood (the present name was adopted in 1957), the Institute serves as a "center of information, study, documentation, consultation, advice, and social action on all problems relating to maternity, childhood, adolescence, and the family, in America."

The Director General, Dr. Víctor Escardó y Anaya, and members of his technical staff reported that the Institute is making strong efforts to deal with certain priority problems affecting children and youth in the Americas, including nutrition, birth registration, delinquency, and care of abandoned children, and that it is developing closer working relationships with the specialized organizations of the United Nations and the Organization of American States, as well as with certain voluntary agencies such as the Unitarian Service Committee which is cooperating with the Institute in attacking the number one problem of child malnutrition. Representatives of several of these organizations, notably UNICEF, the Pan American Health Organization, the Inter-American Commission of Women, and the Unitarian Service Committee were present as observers.

In addition to approving the annual work program and budget for the following year, the Council approved, with amendments, the draft of an agreement under which the Institute would be integrated into the administrative and fiscal machinery of the Organization of American States, while at the same time retaining its complete technical autonomy and maintaining its headquarters in Montevideo, Uruguay. The draft of this agreement, as approved by the Institute's Directing Council, was left with the Secretary General of the OAS to be submitted to that organization's Council. Upon approval by the Council of the OAS, the agreement will go to the Secretary General of the OAS and the Director General of the IACI for their signatures. It will probably not take effect until the beginning of fiscal 1963 unless administrative plans for the changeover can be completed earlier.

The Council also approved the draft of an agreement establishing working relationships between the Inter-American Children's Institute and the International Children's Center, which has its headquarters in Paris. The ICC, an agency of the French Government which annually receives a large grant of funds from UNICEF, has recently conducted programs within the Americas, including seminars for professional workers and short courses for pediatricians. Because of the overlap of interests and activities of the two organizations, an agreement was proposed to consolidate the basis of cooperation established informally a year ago when the Institute and the Center jointly conducted a training seminar on perinatal mortality in Montevideo, with an inter-American faculty and trainees from the various American Republics.

The work program approved by the Council of the Institute for fiscal 1963 provides for continuation of the symposia on child nutrition initiated with the support of the Unitarian Service Committee in 1958. These will begin in January 1962, with two symposia in Argentina cosponsored by the Universities of Mendoza and Santa Fe, and one in Bolivia cosponsored by the Bolivian Pediatric Society.

The Council also approved a recommendation made to the Institute by the Pan American Health Organization that it conduct a training course on nutrition for social workers. Approval was also given to a proposed seminar for high-level administrative personnel of children's programs to draw up standards, guidelines, and recommendations in respect to the protection of children for the use of experts in the American countries who are planning programs of national development related to the Alliance for Progress and the Act of Bogotá, adopted by the OAS in 1960. High priority was voted for a demonstration project of prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency in Haiti, in connection with which the Haitian Government has made extensive preliminary studies and for which it will provide most of the personnel.

The Institute has been increasingly active in the publications field and has translated into Spanish three Children's Bureau publications: "The Child Who is Mentally Retarded"; "Child-Caring Institutions"; and "Child Welfare as a Field of Social Work Practice." Other of the Institute's publications include compilations of the adoption laws of all American countries and of children's codes.

The Directing Council will meet again in June 1962, in Montevideo, Uruguay.

—Elisabeth Shirley Enochs

Staff Development

Staff development as an administrative function to help solve the interrelated problems of achieving greater competence and greater availability of public welfare personnel was discussed at a 7-day meeting of 68 staff development representatives from State public welfare departments, held in Washington, D.C., September 25–October 3, 1961. The meeting was sponsored jointly by the Children's Bureau and the Bureau of Public Assistance, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

The major task of the group was to review and discuss basic training materials that could be used by agencies as standards against which to measure the effectiveness of their programs. The draft material was prepared by a committee of training specialists of the two Bureaus, in response to the expressed need of the States for such standards. The Bureaus are now revising the material according to suggestions made at the meeting, in preparation for a forthcoming publication.

The group gave special attention to the place of staff development in the structure of the agency and its role in policy formation. The members related

the principles of staff development to practice and examined the barriers that prevent the successful implementation of them. Emphasis was placed on: the need for comprehensive and long-term planning; the responsibility for participation by staff development representatives in policy formation affecting staff performance; the need for a clearer definition of the relation of an overall staff development person to other agency staff carrying some staff development functions; and the need for constant assessment of both planning and methods in relation to the achievement of a better quality of service.

The meeting also gave attention to training in relation to emergency welfare services, with techniques suggested for staff training in this regard. A syllabus on such services, which had been prepared for use of the group, was recognized as having application for training in other areas of public welfare.

The agenda also included consideration of appropriate utilization of staff. This involved discussion of a current research project of the Bureau of Public Assistance, the Educational Standards Project, which is an attempt to define the functions appropriate to the job of the caseworker in the aid-to-dependent-children program. The project will also attempt to determine which of these functions require professional knowledge and skills, if they are to be performed acceptably, and which might be carried successfully by nonprofessional personnel. The participants recognized the approach used in this project as one that might be adapted to other social services.

—Bessie Trout

Rehabilitation

A fellowship on postgraduate training for a foreign physician has been established at the Department of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, New York University Medical Center, by the World Rehabilitation Fund and the International Union for Child Welfare. Created in honor of the late Mary Dingman, former member of the international staff of the Young Women's Christian Association, the fellowship will provide for at least a year of training. In the selection of the trainee, preference will be given to women physicians who have worked primarily with handicapped children and youth.

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To stimulate voluntary activity throughout the world towards rehabilitation of the disabled, seven awards have been set up by the Reader's Digest Foundation for groups here and abroad who have given distinguished service in this work for their communities during the 2-year period, 1961–62. Ranging from $500 to $2,500, the awards will be presented at the Ninth World Congress of the International Society for Rehabilitation of the Disabled in Copenhagen, Denmark, in June 1963.

A seven-member board of international experts will make the selections, considering first the status of services within the community in 1960, then the degree of voluntary leadership used in assessing needs of and providing services for the handicapped; actions to remove blocks to developing such services; and efforts to develop programs to employ the handicapped and for the education and medical care of crippled children.

A brochure about the awards and ways to apply for them is available from the International Society for Rehabilitation of the Disabled, 701 First Avenue, New York 17.

Child Welfare

A research project aimed at developing a professional training program for child-care counselors is about to be initiated jointly by the Jewish Board of Guardians and Teachers College, Columbia University, with a 2-year grant of $55,000 from the National Institutes of Health, Public Health Service.

With the purpose of increasing the effectiveness of residential institutions and day-care centers, the project will include analysis of the child-care counselor's functions, identification of required responsibilities and skills, and construction of an appropriate curriculum for developing them. It will be guided by a technical advisory committee representative of the sponsoring agencies, the Children's Bureau, the Child Welfare League of America, the New York School of Social Work, and the fields of anthropology, psychology, and nursing.

This committee will be under the chairmanship of Herschel Alt, executive director of the Jewish Board of Guardians. Also working with the project will be an interdepartmental Teachers College committee.

Director and co-director, respectively, of the project will be Jerome M. Goldsmith, director of the Board's Hawthorne Cedar Knolls School, and Maurice Fouracre of Teachers College.

• • •

Three years' study of the question of family desertion by the public welfare division of the Canadian Welfare Council, based on a review of social work literature and on the files of Canadian public and voluntary agencies, culminated recently in a report on the causes and effects of desertion. The Council has included recommendations to social agencies, courts, and provincial governments for specific objectives and procedures that would reduce the incidence of family breakup, and ameliorate the ill effects on those deserted.

With heavy accent on the importance of distinguishing between the immediate and the underlying causes of desertion and on the value for the community of preventive rather than punitive action, the report advises agencies to coordinate their services with those of other agencies. Financial aid to deserted wives, the Council maintains, should not hinge on the initiation of a suit for nonsupport. Among other areas recommended for further study is the possible effect of social pressure to marry in propelling the young into hasty marriages ending in desertion.

The report is obtainable from the Canadian Welfare Council, 55 Parkdale Ave., Ottawa; price 50 cents (Canadian).

Mental Retardation

Calling for a "comprehensive and coordinated attack" on mental retardation, President Kennedy in mid-October appointed a 24-member panel of physicians, scientists, educators, social workers, lawyers, psychologists, and other specialists to chart the lines of strategy for a national program to prevent and treat mental retardation. Leonard Mayo, director of the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children, was named as chairman; and George Tarjan, superintendent and medical director of the Pacific State Hospital, Pomona, Calif., as vice-chairman.

The President charged the committee with the following responsibilities:

- The exploration of ways to prevent

and ways to cure mental retardation.

- The study of factors relevant to this condition, including biological, psychological, educational, vocational, and socioeconomic aspects.
- The identification of gaps in current mental retardation programs and failures in the coordination of their activities.
- The appraisal of possibilities for greater use of present knowledge about mental retardation.

The panel was directed to review and make recommendations on four specific topics by the end of 1962: (1) personnel needed for developing and applying new knowledge on mental retardation; (2) the major areas of concern offering the most hope, and the means, techniques, and private and governmental structures necessary for encouraging research in these areas: (3) the current programs of treatment, education, and rehabilitation; and (4) the relations between the Federal Government, the States, and private resources in their common efforts to eliminate mental retardation.

WHC Followup

The task of educating children and youth—especially the aspect of vocational training and guidance—ranks first among areas of concern related to the welfare of young people, according to a poll of some 227 national youth-serving organizations, conducted in 1961 and reported recently by the National Committee for Children and Youth. The organizations were polled through a questionnaire asking each to list five problem areas in order of priority.

The resulting picture plus recommendations for Committee action which were also elicited by the questionnaire were expected to furnish guidelines for planning the Committee's future emphasis.

The overall order of priority for the reported spheres of concern were these, after education: the family; values and ideals; delinquency; human rights; citizenship; employment; religion; leadership; leisure activities; the handicapped; mass media; and health education.

The questionnaire was developed on the request and with the collaboration of the Council of National Organizations for Children and Youth, which had conducted a study of such organizations' activities and their areas of concern in January 1961 as a followup of the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth.

The report is available on request from the NCCY, 1145 19th Street, NW., Washington 8, D.C.

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A wide spectrum of activities focused on promoting youth employment opportunities—ranging from planning the remodeling of school curricula to fit pupils' likely work prospects in the future, to opening youth employment centers—have been reported by public and voluntary agencies throughout the Nation in followup of the 1961 Conference on Unemployed Out-of-School Youth in Urban Areas. (See CHILDREN, July–August 1961, page 151.) The conference sponsor, the National Committee for Children and Youth, has compiled and indexed responses to questionnaires sent to conferees, in a preliminary report which also sums up the recommendations made by respondents for action by the Committee.

The responses indicated that followup conferences on the subject were held in many of the 15 large cities on which the conference especially focused attention and that plans for specific action were made at these conferences.

The respondents proposed, among other recommendations, that the National Committee for Children and Youth convene conferences on specific occupations, act as information clearinghouse, coordinator, and stimulus for activities promoting youth employment, and interpret to the public, youth's employment needs and the agencies' efforts to meet them. The report is available on request from the NCCY, 1145 19th Street, NW., Washington 8, D.C.

For Health

The progress to date toward development and commercial output of a measles vaccine was reviewed during the first International Conference on Measles Immunization, held November 7 through 9 at the National Institutes of Health, Public Health Service, in Bethesda, Md. Several hundred virologists, physicians, and independent investigators attended the conference, which was jointly sponsored by the University of Colorado, the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, and the Institutes' Division of Biologics Standards.

About 80 papers by investigators from 22 countries were presented on subjects ranging from reports of field trials with attenuated live and killed measles virus vaccines, to epidemiological aspects of the disease and the future of measles immunization. Reports on the vaccines indicated that the attenuated live-virus vaccine would provide the most long-lasting immunity to the disease with only one shot, but that it often produces uncomfortable side effects, including a high fever. Effective experiments in reducing these side effects through the simultaneous administration of the blood plasma fraction, gamma globulin, were also reported.

An official of the Institutes announced that a proposed set of requirements for production of a live-virus vaccine had already been circulated among interested scientists, but because of the considerable time and effort needed for drawing up the actual regulations for licensing, he said he could not predict when commercial vaccine output would start.

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A recommendation for audiometric screening at specific lower intensities of loudness than now generally used was among those made in a national conference on identification audiometry, whose proceedings are the basis for a recent monograph.

Published by the American Speech and Hearing Association with support from the Children's Bureau, the monograph includes a report on research in hearing among children conducted at the School of Public Health of the University of Pittsburgh. This research emphasizes that, on the average, children's hearing is more sensitive than would be indicated by the testing levels customarily used as a normal hearing threshold.

The participants of the conference, held in Baltimore in 1960, consisted of research experts as well as directors of programs of identification audiometry. The publication, *Identification Audiometry*, defines this kind of testing to be different from diagnostic audiometry in that it does not consider the degree, kind, or cause of hearing impairment. The contents of the publication span a variety of issues concerned with the validity and reliability of testing procedures and equipment; program development; personnel and management questions; followup of

preschool-age children; and some aspects of industrial and military audiology.

The publication is available from the American Speech and Hearing Association, 101 Connecticut Ave., NW., Washington, D.C., price $1.90, less in quantity.

For Youth

As a result of a recommendation of the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth, plans have been drawn up for demonstration projects in which Selective Service registrants who fail medical examinations will be referred, on a voluntary basis, to sources of medical care in their communities. Scheduled to begin in early 1962 at five Armed Forces Examining Stations in Pennsylvania and New York City, the projects will use trained health personnel from State and local health departments to counsel the rejectees before referral.

The plans stem from the work of a subcommittee of the Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth, which includes representatives of the Selective Service System, the Public Health Service, the Offices of Education and Vocational Rehabilitation, the Bureau of Employment Security, and the Department of the Army. Appointed to explore the effects of the peacetime draft on youth and on the Nation, as requested by the White House Conference, the subcommittee recommended the use of draft data to bring together youth needing help and the community agencies that can provide it.

According to Selective Service statistics, about 20–25 percent of the persons examined for military service fail to meet medical standards of the Armed Forces.

The plans call for: administration of the projects by the State and local health departments, with aid from the Public Health Service on technical matters and in maintaining liaison with participating Federal agencies; the provision of counseling to rejectees and referral of them for treatment to their private physicians or to proprietary, voluntary, and official health facilities and agencies; and followup by public health departments to determine the extent of rejectees' response to the counseling and referral.

As a by-product, the health departments are expected to derive, from the project's data, yardsticks for measuring their progress toward the achievement of their objectives.

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In mid-November, President Kennedy appointed a Committee on Youth Employment, composed of 23 Federal, State, and local officials and private citizens under the chairmanship of Secretary of Labor Arthur J. Goldberg, to map lines of strategy toward opening up job opportunities for unemployed youths. Dr. James B. Conant, former president of Harvard University, was appointed vice-chairman of the committee.

The action followed recommendations submitted to the President by Secretary Goldberg, charting as spheres of action for the group: the marshalling and coordinating of official and private resources for the attack on youth unemployment; developing public support of youth employment programs; urging creation of State and local counterparts of the Committee; and acting as a clearinghouse for research and information on the subject.

. . .

Progress in modifying the behavior of an adolescent gang occurs in spurts rather than evenly, according to the findings of a research and service project for delinquent and potentially delinquent youth in Syracuse, N.Y., recently reported on by the Huntington Family Centers. In the 3-year project, which ended in October 1960, a diagnostic approach integrating casework and groupwork methods was used in serving these normally hard-to-reach young people.

Four groups of adolescent boys were served, each group having 5 to 11 members. Many boys were from weak or broken homes in the city's "East Side," where there is a high incidence of social disorganization.

Each group was served by a single worker, carrying out a program that included—in addition to play on a farm, organized sports, and social dancing—the serving of food after each meeting and the use of a car as a "floating clubhouse." Limited casework was extended to members of the boys' families.

Among other findings were the following:

• Wide variations among the boys served to indicate that they could not be treated alike.

• Most of the boys were able to understand and alter their behavior.

• These "hard-to-reach" youth in Syracuse differed considerably from the highly structured youth gangs, with definite leadership, purpose, and "turf," that are found in New York City.

The project is described in a report,

SCHOOL DESEGREGATION

In the fall of 1961, 37 school districts in the Southern and "border" States were newly desegregated—25 voluntarily and the others under court order, according to statistics from the Southern Education Reporting Service of Nashville, Tenn. This brings the total of desegregated districts in these States to 897, including 104 desegregated in policy only. The new actions involve 1,120 Negro pupils.

Here is the count:

State	Newly desegregated school districts	Total desegregated school districts (actual and policy only)	Total school districts
Delaware	6	92	92
Florida	4	5	67
Georgia	1	1	198
Kentucky	4	134	211
North Carolina	1	11	173
Tennessee	6	13	154
Texas	7	148	1,485
Virginia	8	19	131

In the other Southern and border States the score is as follows:

State	Desegregated school districts	Total school districts
Alabama	0	114
Arkansas	10	418
District of Columbia	1	1
Louisiana	1	67
Maryland	23	24
Mississippi	0	151
Missouri (estimated)	201	1,692
Oklahoma	195	1,232
South Carolina	0	108
West Virginia	43	55

"Reaching the Hard-To-Reach," by Norman R. Roth, the project's research director, published by the Huntington Family Centers, 512 Almond Street, Syracuse, New York. (Price $1.50, from the Centers.)

Redesign for Welfare

The first moves in a broad plan to remodel Federal participation in public welfare services were announced December 11, by Health, Education, and Welfare Secretary Abraham A. Ribicoff. The Secretary outlined 10 changes which can be achieved through administrative action. All of them were focused on stimulating independence in families receiving public assistance, especially in the program of aid to dependent children. Other changes requiring legislative action are to be proposed to Congress in January.

The announcement came following the release of three reports concerned with the program and operation of the Federal Government's public welfare program: (1) the report of an ad hoc committee of social workers, under the chairmanship of Sanford Solender, executive vice-president of the National Jewish Welfare Board, appointed by the Secretary last spring to study the welfare programs of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; (2) recommendations relating to administrative and program actions of the Bureau of Public Assistance and the Children's Bureau, prepared by George K. Wyman, former deputy commissioner of Social Security, under a grant by the Field Foundation; and (3) a report of the Project on Public Services for Families and Children sponsored by the New York School of Social Work, prepared by Elizabeth Wickenden and Winifred Bell.

The first 7 of the 10 changes affect the conditions under which States may receive Federal matching for the assistance programs. They specify that the State:

1. Must set up, in its public assistance agency, a special unit responsible for locating deserting parents of children in the aid-to-dependent-children program.

2. Must fortify procedures for control and prevention of fraud.

3. May allow children on the assistance rolls to retain earnings for future needs such as education, medical services, or preparation for employment, in order to increase their incentives for achieving independence.

4, 5, 6. Must provide intensive casework services—through home visits at least every 3 months, the use of best qualified staff with low caseloads, and coordination with child welfare services—to families with special problems including those with unmarried parents, deserting parents, or hazardous home conditions, in order to safeguard the children.

7. Must submit, by July 1, 1962, a 5-year plan for increasing the training of qualified social workers, including provision for at least one full-time training position by that date.

The remaining three revisions called for:

8. Renaming the Bureau of Public Assistance, the Bureau of Family Services.

9. Setting up within this Bureau, a Division of Welfare Services to be concerned with encouraging the development of more effective family welfare services within the State agencies.

10. Creating the post of assistant commissioner of Social Security to direct the coordination of the aid-to-dependent-children program with the child welfare program of the Children's Bureau.

The Secretary has called for a conference of State Welfare Administrators in Washington in late January to discuss these and other prospective changes.

GUIDES AND REPORTS

EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES. Tested and approved for preschool, school, home. Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington 16, D.C. Bulletin No. 39. 1961 revision. 116 pp. 50 cents.

A guide for administrators, teachers, and parents in the selection of play and educational equipment.

CREATIVE DRAMATICS. Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Avenue, NW., Washington 16, D.C. 1961. 48 pp. 75 cents.

Five articles which illustrate the use of creative dramatics to motivate other phases of learning, to build rapport between teacher and pupil, and to teach children to think independently and to communicate ideas confidently.

SCHOOL SEGREGATION, NORTHERN STYLE. Will Maslow and Richard Cohen. Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 316. 1961. 20 pp. 25 cents.

This pamphlet points up the growth of racial segregation in the schools in the metropolitan centers of the North and the resulting inequalities in educational opportunities. It attributes the situation to patterns of residential segregation and school districting which have developed over the past 3 decades in the large cities of the North as Negroes have flowed into them from the South. The pamphlet also outlines a few Northern desegregation programs.

EXPLORING THE BRAIN OF MAN: in search of the prevention and cure of neurological and sensory disorders. National Committee for Research in Neurological Disorders, University Hospital, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14. 1961. 28 pp.

Developments in research devoted to neurological and sensory disorders—from the use of ultrasounds in brain surgery to millipore filters in nerve regeneration—are broadly scanned in this illustrated booklet.

IN THE JOURNALS

The Mother's Acceptance

A low but positive correlation between a mother's degree of acceptance of her retarded child and her religious background was found in a study reported in the September 1961 issue of the quarterly, *Child Development*. ("Maternal Acceptance of Retarded Children; a Questionnaire Study of Attitudes and Religious Background," by G. H. Zuk, Ralph L. Miller, John B. Bartram, and Frederick Kling.) The authors are the psychologist, the chaplain, and the pediatrician-director of the retardation clinic of the nondenominational St. Christopher's Hospital for Children in Philadelphia, and a consulting statistician.

The study was based on the responses to 72 out of 125 questionnaires sent to mothers of clinic patients—about half Catholic and half non-Catholic and of similar educational and socioeconomic background.

Mothers with higher ratings of intensity in religious practices were found more often to express attitudes regarded by the investigators as revealing a greater degree of acceptance of their retarded children than others; and more Roman Catholic than non-Catholic mothers fell into this category.

The authors relate their findings to the context of Roman Catholic doctrine, which they describe as being more explicit than non-Catholic religious doctrine on absolving parents of guilt for bearing handicapped children.

Therapeutic Love

A British psychiatrist examines his own role as visiting consultant to residential schools for maladjusted children, in the July 1961 issue of the quarterly, *The British Journal of Criminology*. ("Psychiatric Treatment of Children in a Residential Setting," by C. L. C. Burns.) As he depicts it, the role calls for tact, patience, and the ability to give and obtain cooperation and to adapt to the various types of schools and variations in their wardens' philosophies, which range from "good common sense" to the tenets of dynamic psychology. Such differences he says do not count so much in helping a child as the difference in the staff's having or not having the gift of "therapeutic love."

The author, who is associated with the Birmingham Child Guidance Clinic, analyses some cases of children he has seen in a hostel which he visits fortnightly—having tea with the boys, discussing cases with the warden, but seldom seeing the boys individually. He makes the point that even curtailed or sporadic contact with the child can yield good results, but adds that the main therapeutic agent is the life in the school. Followup, he says is essential.

Family Mobility

Noting that a family's change of residence can produce some degree of emotional trauma in a child, a team of authors writing in the quarterly, *Mental Hygiene*, of October 1961 contends that the damage may be more than temporary to children already anxious about intrafamilial relationships. ("The Effects of Family Moves on Children," by R. E. Switzer; J. C. Hirschberg; L. Myers; E. Gray; N. H. Evers; and R. Forman.) Parents becoming unavailable to the child emotionally because of their own unconscious resistance to the move are among other factors identified as aggravating a child's feelings of loss and fear of the unknown.

The authors were members of a subcommittee on the mental health of children of a Kansas fact-finding committee for the preparation of the White House Conference. Drawing attention to a report that, on the average, one out of every four families in the Nation changes homes every year, they advise that parents intending to move take action to prevent emotional difficulties in their children by telling them about the move themselves as far in advance as possible, by continuing to provide them with emotional support at home, by understanding the child's need for support from positive forces outside the home—as in school or scout troop—and considering how some of these forces can be carried forward or counterparts found during the adjustment.

Forgotten Children

In the October 1961 issue of the quarterly, *Social Work*, one of New York City's school social workers describes an experiment in providing 10 cases of disturbed children with direct therapy in the school. ("Therapy with Children Without Parental Involvement," by Sonia Wachstein.) The parents of the children, she says, were hardly or not at all available for interviews, because of "their own overwhelming difficulties," but consented to the therapy in school for their children. The treatment consisted of weekly 1-hour sessions and lasted from 4 months to 2 years. The school, the author maintains, was advantageous as a setting for the therapy, since in providing the insufficiently individualized child with "his own special teacher" it thereby provided him with ego support.

The author points out that private agencies which provide therapeutic services for disturbed children are becoming more and more selective about intake, sometimes requiring involvement of the whole family. She warns that, the "forgotten" children cut off from treatment because their parents cannot participate, may force public attention later, "when it is too late."

Social Matrix of Theft

The October 1961 issue of the quarterly, the *American Sociological Review*, describes a study applying a "self-report" questionnaire designed for studying misconduct among high school students to 912 seventh and eighth graders in three diverse Kansas communities, and correlating the results in relation to the amount of stealing reported. ("Social Correlates of Early Adolescent Theft," by Robert A. Dentler, Dartmouth College, and Lawrence J. Monroe, University of Chicago.)

Major findings were that stealing was self-reported by a greater proportion of boys than girls; of youths 14 years of age or older, than those younger; of youngest siblings, than oldest siblings.

No significant association appeared between theft score and socioeconomic status, type of community, family intactness, peer group sociometric status, or self-concept.

READERS' EXCHANGE

YARROW: ***Other research***

There has been sufficient research by enough different investigators to make it reasonably safe to conclude that the employment of mothers is not in all cases detrimental to their children. Since we cannot afford to do a research project on each individual family, emphasis has shifted to the effects of employment under specified conditions or in relationship to significant variables in the environment or within the individual, as in the study described by Marian Radke Yarrow in the November-December 1961 issue of CHILDREN. ["The Effects of Maternal Employment on Children."]

Dr. Yarrow has mentioned the importance of considering intervening variables. I would point out that some antecedent variables or conditions may be equally or more useful. The concept of "contingent condition" is, I feel, a more flexible research concept, which permits the use of both intervening and antecedent variables. In addition to education of the mother, which Dr. Yarrow employed as a third variable, I have found it useful to consider the age of the mother, number of children in the family, whether or not the marriage is her first, length of employment, attitude of the husband toward her employment, and type of position held by the mother. Robert Blood has recently employed income level of the husband to advantage in his analyses. (Blood's article, my own research and the other presently unpublished research referred to here, will be available shortly in a book tentatively titled "The Employed Mother in America," by Ivan Nye, Lois Hoffman, and others, Rand-McNally, 1962.)

How mothers can work a full day and still provide adequately for children's physical and emotional needs is an interesting question. Joseph Perry throws some light on this matter in his recent study of mother substitutes published in the November 1961 issue of *Marriage and Family Living*. He found that if the mother substitute was not a relative, she was likely to be a neighbor. He found less negative material in the attitudes and relationships of mother substitutes toward the children than among the mothers themselves.

Feld, at the University of Michigan, as well as Professors Joseph Perry, Richard Ogles, and myself have found less negative material in the mother-child relationship of employed mothers than of nonemployed mothers. These findings lend support to the idea that mother-child contacts can be *too* close and continuous.

Dr. Yarrow proposed research on the effects of employment on the mother herself. Some research has been done by Professors Sheila Feld, Lawrence Sharp, and myself, but more is needed. Considerable attention is also being directed to the husband-wife relationship.

I agree with Dr. Yarrow that employment of the mother represents a basic change in the structure of the family. Her work role occupies more of her time than any other; furthermore, it is a dominant or rigid role which will affect her domestic roles more than her domestic responsibilities will affect her role as an employee. This subject will continue to challenge some of our ablest researchers.

F. Ivan Nye
Professor of Sociology,
Florida State University

CONANT: ***Some suggestions***

I read with great interest and concern the article which appeared in the September–October 1961 issue of CHILDREN entitled "Social Dynamite in Our Large Cities," by James B. Conant. The problem of large numbers of out-of-school, unemployed youth, as Dr. Conant shows, is an appalling one, and I am afraid will be so for some years to come. Here in Cleveland we are attempting to do something about this group with $3,700 donated by the Cleveland Foundation for a survey to be conducted by the school system.

While this is commendable, I believe it must be further enlarged upon and improved upon. Perhaps other cities like New York, St. Louis, Chicago, and Philadelphia are already doing more, but I believe the following steps should be taken:

1. The director of the State employment service should set up a separate unit within the service to deal with the young people between the ages of 16–21 who are out of school and out of jobs.

2. Data on the out-of-work youth should be gathered by the Bureau of Employment Security, U.S. Department of Labor, and the figures released to the press at the same time as the overall unemployment figures, but under a separate heading.

3. The State government should set up a committee composed of labor leaders, educators, and the director of the employment service to deal with the problem.

Dr. Conant pointed out that 300,000 jobs are needed to take care of these young people and this should be pointed out to the President of the United States.

This is a serious problem and a grave situation for America to be in at a time when there are groups busy sowing the seeds of discontent, disunity, and moral decay among our young. It is imperative for whole communities to become interested for this is not a school problem. It is a community problem that must be faced squarely and by coordination and cooperation among groups.

Paul W. King
Lakewood, Ohio

Somebody's business

Dr. Conant has done a great service for the country in pointing up the needs of young people who drop out of school and have difficulty in finding work. Through his speaking and writing he has made the public aware, as it has never been before, of the urgency for some city schools to adjust their programs to educate this group. He has also helped the public become aware of the high unemployment rate among young people and the need for more services for unemployed youth. The rate of unemployment in some slum areas inhabited largely by Negroes is truly alarming. Dr. Conant is helping to focus the attention of many more people on this problem and providing inspiration to those who have over the years been seeking solutions for it.

But it isn't—strictly speaking—true that "the employment of youth is literally nobody's affair." Every State employment service in the country provides special services for youth. Last year nearly 750,000 young people under 20 were placed in jobs by these agencies' local offices—not counting those placed on farm jobs. Services by the public employment agencies have been constantly extended and improved over the last 10 years. We are happy to say that this year additional funds have been made available by Congress for this purpose. Social agencies interested in youth will be glad to know of these improved placement programs for youth and should urge unemployed youth to keep their applications active with the local office of their State employment service.

Plans are underway for youth specialists in the local public employment offices to increase their efforts for counseling and placement of these out-of-school unemployed youth in jobs.

Some local offices of the employment service do have special youth units as Mr. King recommends in his letter. His suggestions and others are being reviewed currently within the Bureau of Employment Security and we hope that in the near future the results of improved employment services for youth will be felt within every large community of the country.

Evelyn Murray
Chief, Branch of Services to Youth, Bureau of Employment Security, U.S. Department of Labor

BLAKE: ***A basic difference***

The immediate goals of the youth worker and the police are not identical, and that is the hub of most of our conflicts. The issue is further compounded by the fact that the means of attaining these goals are somewhat difficult though at times running parallel and rather close. There is a failure to understand and admit that the philosophies of social work and law enforcement, even though their ultimate goals are the same, are basically different in respect to how these goals are achieved. This is usually the greatest irritant.

The example given in Mary Blake's article ["Youth Workers and the Police," CHILDREN, September-October 1961] points up very clearly that the immediate goals of each are opposed. The youth worker's goal in this instance is to gather the group together. The policeman's goal is to disperse. Circumstances alone contribute much to creating the dilemma. However, the failure of the youth worker to recognize the hazards of gathering such a group on the corner and the policeman's poor approach added to the provocation. The errors committed by both are so fundamental that there is a tendency to overlook the obvious and suggest the more complex solution.

What is needed today is a bible to be put in the hands of the youth worker and the police explaining in great detail the relative positions of both and how they can get together and how they can best work together. However, even though their efforts are parallel, they should never be permitted to merge because in losing their individual identity, their separate worth is endangered.

The subject of the interchange of information between the youth worker and the policeman to the detriment of an individual person is a very sensitive one. The policeman is duty bound and has a legal obligation to act upon information and to pursue it assertively through investigation, apprehension, and prosecution, and has little legal discretion to act otherwise; whereas, the youth worker, except when heinous and atrocious crimes have been committed, or when required to report by State statute, is guided by the ethics of his profession and his individual moral standards.

Howard R. Leary
Deputy Commissioner, Police Department, City of Philadelphia

ADAMS: ***Author's comments***

Although I might differ slightly with her emphasis, I think Hannah Adams has done a fine job in summarizing the study of unmarried mothers made by the Community Council of greater New York under my direction. ["Two Studies of Unmarried Mothers in New York City," CHILDREN, September–October 1961.] I should like, however, to add some of my own observations on the subject.

These observations arise out of the many discussions I had during the development, planning, and execution of the Council's study with professional and lay persons active in agencies serving unmarried mothers. Two recurrent themes were evident in these discussions. I cannot recall a meeting when someone did not say, "But there are many more unmarried *white* mothers than the figures show; and the babies of these mothers are being placed through 'black market' or 'grey market' channels," or "Your study is not really very useful because the important thing is how do we reduce the volume of illegitimate births."

In my view, the attitudes reflected by such comments constitute a deterrent to the further development of agency services to assist unmarried mothers—as they are, and as they will be.

Of course, I would also like to see a reduction in the volume of illegitimate births, but since for a variety of demographic, social, and economic reasons there is little prospect of such a reduction in the next decade, I believe the more important immediate task is to help those women who are or will become unwed mothers (and their children) in the ways that they need help. In the main, these are women of minority groups and of relatively low socio-economic status. Some lessening of the preoccupation of social agency personnel with the "undiscovered" white unmarried mothers is essential if we are to get the necessary shift in emphasis which hopefully will lead to the expansion of services for the unmarried mothers in full view on our doorsteps.

Blanche Bernstein
Formerly Director of Research, Community Council of Greater New York

More controls needed

In reading the article by Hannah Adams, "Two Studies of Unmarried Mothers in New York City," we are again reminded of two points that should be taken into consideration in conducting or interpreting research in this area. First is the difficulty of arriving at meaningful conclusions about unmarried motherhood without taking into account some of the relevant background characteristics. For example, while the studies show that the illegitimacy rates vary greatly by race and ethnic background, as Miss Adams points out, other factors in socio-economic status were not used as a control in analyzing the data. It is likely that much, if not all, of the differences found between married and unmarried mothers with respect to amount and

type of prenatal care, infant mortality, and so on, would have disappeared if the data had been controlled for socio-economic status, broken home background, and other variables which might be considered as more basic than the marital status of the mother.

Such factors could even account for much of the well-publicized rise in the rate of births out of wedlock, since there have been large shifts in the proportion of urban population and composition of the population by race and ethnic background, socio-economic status, occupation of father, employment of mother, and other variables which correlate with amount of premarital pregnancy. These shifts in population composition could result in a rise in the total illegitimacy rate even without change in the rates for various subgroups. Such distinctions should have important implications for the way we conceptualize the problem of unmarried motherhood and the kinds of solutions we propose.

The second point I would like to make deals with the notion of the "need for assistance." The need for medical care is well established. The need for other kinds of social services to aid in the social and economic adjustment of the unmarried mother and her child is not so well established, but likely to be assumed by persons dealing with such matters on a professional level. That assumption should be examined more carefully.

In many types of cases there are obvious and serious crises, not always met, as is well documented in the studies discussed here. For others, aside from the affront to our dominant moral codes, the crisis to the individuals may be minimal or nonexistent. In many cultures, unmarried motherhood is not unexpected and is apparently accompanied by no penalties to mother, child, family, or community. The same may be true, to a degree, among some subgroups in this country.

Instead of assuming a crisis, we might find it useful to examine the kinds of situations in which a crisis does exist and to define the crisis in terms of the effect on the mother, on the child, and on the family of the mother. This is not to overlook the community problems that inevitably arise, but these may often be more fruitfully dealt with in terms of the basic social and economic problems of the family or group in which the unmarried mother lives rather than in terms of unmarried motherhood itself.

Charles E. Bowerman,
Professor, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, The University of North Carolina.

MEYER: *Author's response*

I was delighted to see in the Readers' Exchange section of CHILDREN (September–October 1961) Mary Schuster's thoughtful response to my article ["A Development Program for Child Welfare Staff," CHILDREN, July–August 1961.]

Miss Schuster was right in saying that I did not make clear whether or not our demonstration project is intended to become a permanent part of the agency's program. It has, of course, been our hope from the beginning of the project that a successful demonstration would lead to the establishment of the position of a permanent director of staff development. I agree that without definite responsibility assigned to one person for the administration, coordination, and general direction of a staff development program, it would indeed be "whittled away here and there to 'adjust to an emergency', until little is left." I would go even further and say that if one person is *not* charged with staff development responsibility in an agency, professional leadership would soon wane as there would be no one responsible to bring together educational materials and agency practice.

Regarding Miss Schuster's recognition of our discouraging staff turnover in New York City, I can only express appreciation for her awareness of how devastating this factor is to staff development as well as to agency practice. The staff situation in New York City is probably very different from that in Wisconsin where, Miss Schuster says, the agency can "wait for properly qualified staff." Here, we would have a much longer wait, and, therefore, we have had to concentrate on methods that will succeed in retaining even our non-qualified staff.

As far as our stipend program is concerned, we have only participated in the Child Welfare Service Scholarship Program for 2 years. For 10 years before, the Bureau of Child Welfare had a work-study program which proved to be unsatisfactory as far as staff retention was concerned, because it only provided for the first year of graduate school. Therefore, we lost many of our work-study students to other agency scholarship programs when they had fulfilled their work commitments with us. We anticipate being able to retain our 2-year scholarship graduates with increased salaries and carefully planned job assignments. We, of course, envy the Wisconsin agency their 70 percent trained staff. In New York City, in the Bureau of Child Welfare alone, 70 percent of our staff would equal about 400 people, a figure which is completely unrealistic to hope will represent our professional staff in the near future.

Except for these considerations, the steps Miss Schuster outlines toward building a professional staff are certainly unarguable.

Carol H. Meyer
Director of Training, Bureau of Child Welfare, New York City, Department of Welfare

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FOR PARENTS

DR. SPOCK TALKS WITH MOTHERS; growth and guidance. Benjamin Spock, M.D. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston. 1961. $5.

TEACHING YOUR CHILD RIGHT FROM WRONG. Dorothy K. Whyte. Bobbs-Merrill Co., New York. 1961. 192 pp. $3.50.

THE MENTALLY RETARDED CHILD AND HIS PARENT. Stella Stillson Slaughter. Harper & Bros., New York. 1960. 174 pp. $3.75.

HELPING YOUR GIFTED CHILD. Ruth Strang. Introduction by Cyril William Woolcock. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 1960. 270 pp. $4.50.

THE ONLY CHILD. Eda J. LeShan. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 293. Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16. 1960. 20 pp. 25 cents. Discounts on quantity orders.

IF YOUR CHILD HAS A CONGENITAL HEART DEFECT. American Heart Association, 44 East 23d Street, New York 10. 1960. 47 pp. Obtainable without charge from the association or from local heart associations.

SOME U.S. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS FOR PROFESSIONAL WORKERS

Publications for which prices are quoted are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. Orders should be accompanied by payment. Twenty-five percent discount on quantities of 100 or more.

RURAL HEALTH: selected annotated references, January 1953 to June 1960. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, and Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service. 1961. 39 pp.

Directed to workers in research, health education, community activities, and other health work in rural areas, this compilation of annotated references lists readings in trends affecting rural health; health resources and their use; personal health care expenditures and financing; social factors affecting the use of health resources; community study action programs; and special population groups—such as agricultural migrants and Indians.

GUIDE FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSES WORKING WITH CHILDREN: from the developmental point of view. Martha M. Borlick. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. CB Publication No. 392. 1961. 35 pp. 20 cents.

Among the facets of a public health nurse's work with children, that are considered in this publication are: case-finding; recording; analysis of families and their physical setting and neighborhood; appraisal of the mental, physical, and social development of boys and girls; and the formation of plans for working with families, including suggestions for building up rapport with the members of the family. The author is a public health nursing specialist with the District of Columbia Department of Public Health.

UNMARRIED PARENTS: a guide for the development of services in public welfare. Reba E. Choate and Ursula M. Gallagher. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Bureau of Public Assistance and the Children's Bureau. BPA Report No. 45 and CB Publication No. 390. 1961. 63 pp. 30 cents.

This pamphlet spells out the responsibilities of the State agencies for providing for the care and protection of unmarried parents and their children. It points up the importance of coordination of services within the public welfare department; review and, if necessary, revision of legislation, policies and procedures affecting the quality of service provided unmarried mothers; planning for effective use of consultants in helping localities improve their services; strengthening working relationships among all agencies of State government with programs affecting unmarried parents; preparation of materials for local agencies on the social, health, and legal services needed by unmarried parents; and making the legal rights of out-of-wedlock children and their parents clear to local agencies and the general public.

THE INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES OF THE CHILDREN'S BUREAU. Sarah S. Deitrick, M.D., and Dorothy E. Bradbury. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. 1961. 20 pp. Single copies available from the Bureau without charge.

This pamphlet reviews the international activities carried out by the Children's Bureau since their beginning in World War I—when studies of the programs of child welfare in the warring countries were made—to the Bureau's broad, diversified program of today.

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